

THE BULLETIN of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

VOLUME 23

OCTOBER, 1939

NUMBER 84

CONTENTS

PART I

SAN FRANCISCO CONVENTION

FIRST GENERAL SESSION

New Materials of Instruction for the Junior High School.....	5
--	---

SECOND GENERAL SESSION

New Materials of Instruction for the Junior College.....	7
--	---

THIRD GENERAL SESSION

(Senior High-School Section)

Youth Problems and Citizenship	16
--------------------------------------	----

(Junior High-School Section)

Adolescents Look Toward Citizenship.....	35
--	----

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

Youth and Unemployment.....	64
-----------------------------	----

PART II

IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE REPORT

Adjustment of Secondary Youth to Post-School Occupational Life	83
--	----

**SERVICE ORGAN
FOR AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
of the
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

OFFICERS
1939-1940

President: K. J. CLARK

Principal Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama

First Vice President: OSCAR GRANGER

Principal Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

Second Vice President: JOHN E. WELLWOOD

Principal Central High School, Flint, Michigan

Executive Secretary, H. V. CHURCH

5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

PAUL E. ELICKER

Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts

VIRGIL M. HARDIN

Principal Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools, Springfield, Missouri

TRUMAN G. REED

Principal Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington

HUGH H. STEWART

Principal Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

M. R. McDANIEL, *President*

Principal of Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois

CHARLES FORREST ALLEN

Supervisor of Secondary Education, Little Rock, Arkansas

L. W. BROOKS

Principal of Wichita High School East, Wichita, Kansas

E. B. COMSTOCK

Principal of North Dallas High School, Dallas, Texas

S. S. DICKEY

Principal Harding Junior High School, Lakewood, Ohio

PAUL E. ELICKER

Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts

H. J. PARKER

Principal of High School, Corvallis, Oregon

STACY E. PETERS

Principal of Stevens High School, Lancaster, Pennsylvania

W. L. SPENCER

State Director of Secondary Education, Montgomery, Alabama

H. V. CHURCH, *Secretary*

5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago

\$2.00 a Year

Issued Eight Times a Year

Fifty Cents

Monthly, October to May inclusive

Published at Berrien Springs, Michigan, by the National Association of
Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association

5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago

Entered as second-class matter, November 8, 1938, at the post office at Berrien
Springs, Michigan, under the Act of August 12, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at
special rate of postage, provided for in Section 1103, Act of February 28, 1925,
authorized November 8, 1938.

THE BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

*Issued Eight Times a Year
Monthly October to May Inclusive*

OCTOBER, 1939

Serial Number 84

BULLETIN NO 84
Part I

Proceedings of the
Summer Meeting of the
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA
July 3-6, 1939

Part II
A Study of the Adjustment of Secondary Youth
to Post-School Occupational Life

THE CONTENTS OF THIS BULLETIN ARE LISTED IN EDUCATIONAL INDEX

Published by
THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

H. V. CHURCH, Executive Secretary
5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2023

Part I

Proceedings of the
Summer Meeting of the

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

of the

National Education Association

at

SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

on

July 3-6, 1939

Part II

A Study of the Adjustment of Secondary Youth
to Post-School Occupational Life



Edited by
H. V. CHURCH
Executive Secretary of the Association

The Bulletin
of the
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS
National Education Association

VOLUME 23

OCTOBER 1939

NUMBER 84

SAN FRANCISCO CONVENTION

The first session of the convention in San Francisco was held in Auditorium A of Hotel Empire, Monday, July 3, 1939. The meeting was opened at 2:00 p. m. by the chairman, Virgil M. Hardin, Principal of Pipkin and Reed Junior High Schools of Springfield, Missouri, and member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, who introduced for the address of welcome, Superintendent J. P. Nourse of the public schools of San Francisco.

Following Superintendent Nourse, Charles H. Judd, Educational Consultant, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C., spoke without manuscript to the topic *New Materials of Instruction for the Junior High School*.

NEW MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION FOR THE
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

CHARLES H. JUDD
(Abstract of Address)

Educational Consultant, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C.

The Junior High School arose because teachers in the public schools recognized the fact that the pupils in the upper grades of the elementary school differed in maturity and interests from pupils in the first six grades and were very much like pupils in the first two grades of the high school. In the early days of the American educational system, pupils attended schools for so short a period each year, the schools were so meagerly equipped, and teachers were so little trained that only the rudimentary three R's were covered. As schools improved it became possible to complete instruction in the rudiments earlier than in the eight years that were devoted to the elementary schools and to recognize more fully the needs of the older pupils.

The Junior High School was at first a very uncertain quantity. It was organized in some school systems for the purpose of better adjusting the

housing of pupils. It was regarded in some cities as an institution providing terminal courses for pupils who were not going to complete the high school but were going into the trades. It served in other places various purposes. It consisted sometimes of grades seven, eight, and nine; sometimes of grades seven and eight only and in still other cases of other combinations.

The fundamental fact has never been fully grasped that the Junior High School, like any institution of education, depends for its character on the materials of instruction which it employs. The type of instructional material appropriate for this particular division of the school system depends on the intellectual and social maturity of pupils. Pupils of the ages twelve to fifteen are on the threshold of adolescence. Their interests are in their future careers. Furthermore, the instruction of the first six years has given pupils a certain degree of power to read which makes it possible for them to carry on their studies with an independence which was impossible earlier. Pupils of the ages appropriate to the Junior High School are eager to know something about the organization of the social world of which they are to be a part. The school fails to stimulate their interest in work if it does not teach them about such social institutions as government, industry, commerce, and communication.

In order to meet the needs of young adolescents teachers must prepare a type of material which unfortunately has not up to this time been at all extensively used in the schools. Anthropology now has an abundance of new understandings about the way in which social life began and evolved. Pupils can be interested in the rise and growth of modern industry. History of the ordinary political and purely narrative type is not appropriate. What pupils want to know is the answers to questions such as these: Where did money come from and what is it? Why was slavery practiced and what were the forces that overthrew it? What are the inventions that changed the course of civilization, and what inventions are in prospect? Why has government taken on new and constantly expanding functions?

Along with this anthropological material the school should offer information that will prepare young people to find through independent reading the openings into the adult world which are suited to their individual capacities. A program of guidance which aims to make pupils acquainted with their own abilities and their own limitations should constitute a large part of the work of the Junior High School.

Not until there is a distinctive and fruitful body of instructional material prepared specifically to meet the needs of pupils from twelve to fifteen years of age will the Junior High School serve the purposes which have been vaguely recognized as demanding a new unit of the school system between the elementary school and the upper high school.

Adjournment.

JUNIOR COLLEGE SESSION

The second day of the convention was devoted to the theme: THE JUNIOR COLLEGE BROADENS ITS CURRICULUM, and the presiding officer was Archibald J. Cloud, President of Junior College, San Francisco, who introduced Charles H. Judd, Educational Consultant, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C., who spoke on the subject, *New Materials of Instruction for the Junior College*.

NEW MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

CHARLES H. JUDD
(Abstract of Address)

Educational Consultant, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C.

The World War taught the colleges of this country an important lesson. It suddenly became necessary to make people aware of the conditions that had led up to the entrance of the United States into the war. There was no single department of the colleges competent to give a course which would serve this purpose. There was organized a special course known as the War Issues course given by members of a number of different departments. The economist, the historian, the teachers of foreign languages, the teacher of ethics joined in a coöperative effort to explain the war, its causes, and its problems.

The experience of coöperation between a number of specialists in organizing a course that explained the conditions of contemporary life was very enlightening and after the war many institutions of higher education undertook the preparation of courses on contemporary civilization, on man's place in the physical and social world, on art and literature, and other subjects where the contributions of various fields of knowledge could be pooled.

It has not been easy to break the long established tradition that scholarship and strict specialization are synonymous. Instructors who have participated in general courses of the type described in foregoing paragraphs have again and again fallen back into the practices with which they were familiar—of lecturing on their own various fields.

The Junior College has an opportunity to serve the young people of this country in a unique way. In order to do so it must abandon once and for all the idea that its duty is to imitate the traditional Freshman and Sophomore programs of long-established colleges.

It would be possible to cite case after case in which a state university or some dominating private college has compelled neighboring Junior Colleges to adopt the exact pattern of the courses long given in higher institutions.

On the other hand, it is possible to cite the example of unique courses of such institutions as the General College of the University of Minnesota, of the University of Florida, and the general survey courses of the University of Chicago as illustrations of the way in which the needs of great bodies of students who do not want to specialize can be met. A majority of students who attend colleges are not looking forward to careers as specialists in limited intellectual fields. They want the training which will prepare them for successful participation in the life of communities. They want something that serves in times of peace the same purpose that the War Issues course served in its day.

Junior College teachers can influence the course of secondary education if they will prepare the materials for new general survey courses. There can be no doubt that the future will see a closer affiliation of the Junior College with the high school. The work of the first two years of college is distinctly secondary in character. It is safe to prophesy that the growth of Junior Colleges in connection with municipal public school systems will continue. Young people are unable under present economic conditions to find places in the industrial and commercial world. They can spend their time in adding to their education more profitably than in any other way. It is not especially useful for these young people who are not intending to become professional specialists to take various courses which are designed for the purpose of leading into specific callings. There is obvious need for general courses in the high school as well as in the new Junior College.

Dr. Judd's presentation was followed by a panel discussion led by Walter C. Eells, Coördinator of the Coöperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, and Executive Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, D. C., who introduced the treatment of the subject, *The Junior College Curriculum*:

The growth of the junior-college movement in the United States during the past two decades has been little short of phenomenal. Twenty-two years ago, in 1917, when F. M. McDowell wrote the first doctoral dissertation on the junior college, there were only one hundred thirty junior colleges with an enrollment of four thousand students. By 1922 the enrollment had increased to sixteen thousand; by 1929 to fifty-four thousand; by 1934 to one hundred four thousand; and by 1939, according to the last available junior college directory, there were no less than one hundred fifty-six thousand students enrolled in five hundred fifty-six junior colleges located in forty-four states, the District of Columbia, and the Canal Zone. The average junior college enrollment has increased in ten years from one hundred sixty to two hundred eighty-five students. There are one hundred thirty junior colleges which have enrollments exceeding three

hundred students, and twenty-nine which exceed one thousand. The largest has an enrollment of more than six thousand.

More important than increase in size, however, has been the development of the curriculum, the subject under special consideration in to-day's program. Probably the most significant question concerned with the future development of the junior college is the curriculum and its adaptation to student and community needs. Originally the junior college was primarily concerned with preparation of students for upper division work in the university. This is still an important function and has many questions connected with it. How closely should junior-college courses follow the pattern of university courses? How much are universities modifying their entrance requirements for junior-college graduates to permit greater flexibility in junior-college offerings? What valid methods may be used for measuring the university success of the junior-college product?

With a realization of the fact, however, that only a minority of junior-college graduates, the country over, ever enter higher educational institutions, the more important questions concern the development of curricula especially adapted to the personal, civic, and vocational needs of the majority. What shall be the content of so-called curricula for social intelligence? What semi-professional courses are appropriate to the junior-college field? What ones are needed in the local community? What should be their content? How should it be determined? What proportion of the work of a particular semi-professional student should consist of strictly vocational work, what proportion of work of a more general character? What studies have been made of the success of graduates of semi-professional courses? What valid measures of such success may be used?

Another group of questions concerns the curriculum in even broader aspects. What courses should be offered which are designed especially to meet the needs of adults in the community? Should they be prevailingly cultural or vocational in nature? Should they duplicate courses offered to regular students or not? How should such courses be financed? How should instructors be chosen for them?

These are just a few of the questions concerning the curriculum of the Junior College which may properly engage our attention here to-day. I hope that many of them will be considered by the men who are to participate in this discussion representing, as they do, junior colleges of various sizes in several different states.

The following members of the panel succeeded:

Frank W. Thomas, President, Fresno State College, Fresno, California.

Herbert O. Williams, American Consul, Retired.

E. W. Montgomery, President, Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix Arizona.

William H. Conley, Dean, Wright Junior College, Chicago, Illinois.

Eugene B. Chaffee, President, Boise Junior College, Boise, Idaho.

Harland W. Mead, Dean, Washington Junior College, Washington, Iowa.

Lloyd D. Luckmann, San Francisco Junior College, San Francisco, California.

Charles H. Judd, Educational Consultant, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C.

FRANK W. THOMAS: It is gratifying to find myself in almost complete agreement with Dr. Judd regarding the general principles which he set forth so clearly and well. If there is one feature in which I am a bit disappointed, it is in the fact that he did not carry far enough the logic of his approach.

The forces which have operated to generalize the offerings of the lower division in both the junior college and in higher institutions are still operative. To an even greater extent the influences making for diversification in those offerings are vigorously active and seem certain to produce even more impressive changes than have already occurred. It seems to me pertinent to emphasize the logical implications of these two lines of influence giving special attention to the latter because of its dynamic pressures in modifying the junior-college curriculum.

The need of developing a means of securing greater social integration for students in collegiate institutions is obvious. Colleges and universities are themselves taking the lead in this attempt to broaden the basic foundations of studies for lower division students. It should be noted, however, that in the vigorous expansion characteristic of the junior colleges, these attempts at generalization have assumed greater variety and originality than has been the case in the more traditional disciplines of the university. It seems to me that there is a genuine opportunity for desirable revision on a coöperative basis. In this meeting, at least, it is agreed that the junior colleges owe first allegiance to the needs of that majority of students who will not go beyond those offerings. Is it not possible that the general socializing program of offerings best adapted to providing this service may at the same time be more valuable for the prospective specialist in higher institutions than the rather rigid pattern of preliminary requirements which universities have so revered in the past? Perhaps the universities and the junior colleges may ultimately find a common answer to this problem.

With the progressive postponement of the employment age, there has naturally come a demand for increased preparation of those to be employed. Perhaps the increasing complexity of the relationships in business and industry are even more influential in demanding added preparation. The result has been the upward thrust of vocational training into the junior-college years. Not only has diversification of offerings multi-

plied to meet this demand but the end is beyond prediction. Certainly the addition of innovations and diversified offerings in the junior college will continue to multiply for some time.

In the enthusiasm of junior-college leaders to adapt the curriculum to these varied needs, there is real danger that the mistake of the high schools may be repeated. Diversification of offerings in our secondary schools has too generally been at the expense of standards and requirements which challenge the respect of the students themselves. There is general complaint that our high schools have "gone soft." Real service in the junior colleges will depend upon setting standards possible of attainment in any particular field by those fitted to undertake its offerings but challenging not the least the vigorous method of industry the efforts of the students to do the most thorough and efficient work of which they are capable.

HERBERT O. WILLIAMS: It is almost twenty years since I resigned the presidency of the Sacramento Junior College to enter the American consular service, therefore, my remarks must take the form of an answer to this query: After my experience outside educational circles, what would I add to the junior-college curriculum, or what would I insist upon and emphasize, if I were so fortunate as to re-enter my former profession?

My answer is that I would insist upon students being taught to *think independently* rather than accept another's conclusions, as is done in the schools of the so-called totalitarian states. Daily, through the press, and pre-eminently through radio broadcasts, we are confronted with unsubstantiated statements and theories presented as domestic, social, religious, political, and economic panaceas. Ability to think clearly should be the *hall-mark* of an educated man or woman.

To that end, I urge the value of a course in deductive and inductive logic to instill the principles of accurate thinking, since it is idle to expect any subject (science, language, mathematics) to train the logical faculties except as those faculties may be applied to the special subject under consideration.

E. W. MONTGOMERY: It is a bit difficult to add anything of interest to a discussion which has been unusually harmonious for a panel discussion, and with which I am in complete agreement. However, in compliance with the request of the leader of the discussion and without hoping to add anything new to the conference, I shall briefly describe some of the curricula which we offer at the Phoenix Junior College.

We believe that a junior college shou'd meet the needs of three main types of students, namely:

1. Thos students who are definitely planning for the professions—for these we have such curricula as pre-engineering, pre-medical, pre-legal and the like.

2. Students who may or may not plan to do upper division university work—for these we have the usual liberal arts curriculum with some general survey courses available.

3. Students who are not planning to do upper division college work and are anxious to prepare themselves for a vocation as soon as possible—for these we have various terminal curricula—such as commercial courses, practical agriculture, radio design, training for radio operators, shop arts, homemaking courses, architectural drafting and others.

WILLIAM H. CONLEY: The topic of the panel this afternoon might be discussed from two points of view: first, one might make an inventory of new courses and curricula, or secondly, one might attempt to discover the reason for the broadening of the offerings of the junior college.

In the discussion so far this afternoon there has been a consideration of many new offerings and the reasons for adding them. One of the primary reasons seems to be to take care of the differences of students. The thought has occurred to me that perhaps it would be wise to ask ourselves if we aren't emphasizing too much the differences of students and forgetting about their similarities. Again, a brief analysis of the new courses that have been added in some cases would seem to indicate that there is a very definite need for a clear-cut statement of the criteria which should be used in determining whether or not a course should be offered.

The Chicago Junior Colleges have been seriously concerned with these problems since their re-organization five years ago. Perhaps a brief description of their curriculum and of the criteria used in the addition of new courses would be of interest. In Chicago an effort has been made to realize that there are certain uniformities in students and in their needs. Whether a student is to become a professional man or a day laborer there are certain basic developments that he should have in virtue of the fact that he is a human being, living in society with a cultural heritage, living in a scientific environment, and living in a democratic state. To provide this, a core curriculum, making up approximately half of the student's program, is required of every one. This core curriculum includes a one year course in each of the following fields: English, social science, biological science, physical science, and humanities. These courses have been justified by the feeling that regardless of what the high-school graduate plans to do he will be better equipped by another year's work in mastering the powers of expression, that regardless of plans for a career every student is to be a citizen of a complex social organization and needs an understanding of it and training in the isolation of its problems and techniques of attempting to solve them. Since everyone living to-day must come in contact in everyday life with the developments of science he should know something about it and should have an understanding of the scientific method of thinking—hence two courses in science, one dealing

with the physical world and one dealing with the living world. Finally, in order to live a more complete life with an appreciation of the culture of the race, the course in humanities is required. These courses deal with the problems that are uniform for all students and aim at a development that should be possessed by all.

Chicago's schools recognize that there are also differences and provides for these differences by permitting the students to elect the balance of their programs according to their interests and capacities. Those who wish to go on to the senior college may elect sequences of courses to fulfill the requirements of the college selected. Others who plan to enter professional schools may enroll in courses required for admission to those institutions. There has been little broadening in these offerings in any junior college so there is no need to dwell upon them.

The field in which there has been the most rapid expansion, which is evident from junior college catalogues and from the remarks made here to-day, is in the semi-professional offerings. That large group of students in all public junior colleges who must complete their formal education with the junior college need and demand some training that will aid them in becoming productive members of society. The demands of these students are sometimes fantastic yet apparently some schools have yielded to the demands and have taught most anything that has been requested. I have not yet seen course descriptions for lawn mowing and dishwashing offered by some junior colleges but some of the courses already offered would come within the same category. It seems to me that there is a real need for caution in this matter of expanding the curriculum and for the development of very definite criteria for the offering of new courses in the semi-professional field as well as in any other. In Chicago where there is certainly as great a demand and need for such courses as any place in the nation, we have attempted to introduce semi-professional courses only if they fulfill certain requirements. In the first place there must be an opportunity for the placement of students completing the training in the field. A continuous community analysis is made to determine the occupations in which there is an opportunity for students of junior-college age and training. Those fields which show such opportunity are carefully studied and personnel officials are invited to conferences to discuss the feasibility of offering such work in the junior colleges. If it is agreed that junior-college training is desirable and there is a possibility of opening in the industry plans are made to set up a program of courses which will be taken in conjunction with the basic curriculum. Joint committees from industry and the faculty organize the courses and a continuous relationship is maintained with the personnel officers so that the courses may meet the needs of industry and so that industry will be interested in the students enrolled. Thus there are definite criteria for

the establishment of new courses. At the same time an effort is made to safeguard against over-differentiation by the requirement of the core curriculum.

The Chicago junior colleges, therefore, attempt to meet their objectives: offering a general education to all students, giving preparatory training to those desiring it, and offering semi-professional or terminal work to students wishing to complete their formal education at the end of junior college, through the requirement of a core curriculum, and through the traditional college courses or the semi-professional sequences which may be elected. Thus they feel they are making an effort to expand with community needs without sacrificing the essential development of all students in the basic fields of knowledge.

EUGENE B. CHAFFEE: Boise Junior College was started by the Episcopal Church in 1932, two years later being taken over and sponsored by the local chamber of commerce, and lastly, the junior college legislation of this spring which allowed us to organize a district junior college here on March 24, 1935. From 1932 to 1939, our work at the junior college had been almost entirely academic in nature, but we are now entering the semi-professional field. After my visit to numerous California junior colleges to study the semi-professional field, we are developing terminal curricula in business and forestry. The need for such semi-professional work in this locality is apparent and at the present time we are trying to assess the needs of our area that we might fit the young people from this region for their life-long experiences.

HARLAND W. MEAD: Up until quite recently the public junior colleges of Iowa were in reality liberal arts colleges. Two important changes have taken place in the past ten years, or in most cases the past five years. When studies of the Iowa Junior Colleges began to show the per cent of students who transferred to institutions of higher learning was lower than had been expected, the need for terminal training was met in at least two fields. One being in the field of teacher training and the other was commercial education. Malcolm Love in his study of the Iowa public junior college states, "Two of the Iowa public junior colleges offer teacher training courses which prepare for the Iowa standard elementary certificate, while fourteen additional colleges offer ten semester hours of education and psychology which leads to the first grade county certificate." This study was made and published in 1938 and since that time many of the other eleven colleges have added the later type of teacher training. In commercial education courses in accounting, economics and secretarial science have been introduced. Both of these types of training have been added in the Washington Junior College within the past three years.

LLOYD D. LUCKMANN: Mr. Chairman, the treatment of our theme for to-day has been confined strictly to the administrative aspect of the prob-

lem of "New Materials of Instruction for the Junior College." It appears to me that the fate of this whole problem of the junior-college curriculum lies with the various schools of education. No western college, and I dare say no American college, has found a place in its curriculum for studies in the philosophy of junior college education. Is it not true that much of the work accomplished in the field under discussion to-day will be frustrated because junior-college instructors have not been properly prepared to teach on the secondary level and are for the most part university specialists?

CHARLES H. JUDD: The remarks of Mr. Luckmann are certainly to be taken very seriously. I think what he said could be extended to cover all divisions of the educational system. It is true that the preparation of teachers has been inadequate in the elementary school and secondary schools as well as in the junior colleges. I have always felt disposed to defend the American educational system when the legitimate accusation is made that its teachers are inadequately prepared. The fact is that the enrollment of the secondary schools and colleges has increased at such a rapid rate during the past thirty or forty years that it has been impossible to keep up with the demand for high-grade teachers. It is true that any person of fair ability and endurance enough to stand through the school day could be placed in a teaching position. It is this rapid expansion that has made it impossible for teacher-preparing institutions to do what is expected of them. It was essential that something be done at once to solve the comparatively simple problems of the lower schools. For this reason teachers colleges and departments of education have spent such energy as they had in developing first the methods of education and the theory of education appropriate to the early stages of education.

The time has come, I believe, when Mr. Luckmann's suggestions should be followed. If we are to follow these suggestions, however, we must arrive at some agreement on the question: What is a junior college and what are its functions? I am sure that at the present moment there is no general agreement. I think we have to build up something like a general understanding of the peculiar functions of the junior college. Citizens who support schools and university presidents who are influential in determining policies must be reached. I think that a group such as this made up of those who are vitally interested in developing the junior-college program ought to undertake with vigor two tasks. The first is the preparation of excellent instructional materials and the second is converting the country to an understanding of the junior college. I do not believe that teacher-preparing institutions can do much until the people of the country are ready for the new junior college.

Adjournment.

SENIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION

Wednesday, July 5, 1939

The sessions of the third day were in two sections.

The Senior High-School Section was held at 2:00 p. m. in Auditorium A of Hotel Empire with Arnold A. Bowhay, Jr., Principal of High School, Beverly Hills, California, presiding, who introduced Aubrey Williams, Chief, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C.

YOUTH PROBLEMS AND CITIZENSHIP

AUBREY WILLIAMS

Chief, National Youth Administration, Washington, D. C.

(Abstract of Address)

I want first of all to express my great appreciation of the coöperation which the secondary-school administrators of the country and the college administrators have given to the National Youth Administration. In the administration of the student aid program we have relied entirely on the local educational authorities and we have had a vanishingly small number of cases with respect to which any criticism could be made. In general the student aid program has been conducted as it should have been.

This does not mean, of course, that with increasing experience we can not and should not improve our administration of governmental aid to young people. It is possible, I believe, to exercise new inventive ingenuity in devising work for the young people to do. Some exchange of accounts of what is being done on the most successful projects will be helpful. We are always eager at the Washington office to have reports giving detailed accounts of what is done in the field. There ought also to be great care exercised in seeing to it that not a cent of the Federal money is misplaced. One case in which a student receives aid when he does not need it in order to continue his education does more harm to the cause than we can correct by hundreds of properly conducted cases.

I shall spend a greater part of my time during the coming year in becoming more intimately acquainted with you and others like you who have been associated with our work.

I want to call your attention also to the second part of the program of the National Youth Administration. In addition to giving work to students who are able to stay in school or college we give what we call work experience to two hundred fifty thousand young people who are unemployed but not in schools of any type. These young people are employed part time on socially useful projects. They are of a type, we feel sure, that would profit very greatly by some contact with educational opportunities of the kind that schools and colleges are equipped to give. It is my belief that some of the regular courses now given in educational institutions need

to be modified in content and in methods of teaching if they are to be of greatest advantage to our work-project young people. I am not sure that the schools would not gain much if they would use the opportunity afforded by the National Youth Administration to devise new instructional materials and methods for all young people. There certainly is an opportunity for much to be done coöperatively by the schools and the National Youth Administration in meeting the urgent problems of a host of young people who are now inadequately prepared to take their places in adult society.

We of the National Youth Administration are very desirous of promoting in any way we can better adjustment of the training of young people. We have abundant evidence from our centers to show that the cultivation of good work habits and cultivation of fuller knowledge of the requirements of the working world are of the highest importance to youth. We believe that such experiences as we can provide are important and that they supplement in a significant way the opportunities that schools can offer. What is needed is, I am confident, a closer and more effective coöperation between these agencies all of which are engaged in serving young people.

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: We know that rarely do youngsters get into work for which they are trained. I would like to give you one illustration. We had a boy who wanted to be a Ford tractor repair expert, and after we gave him all the work in our shops, got him a part-time job with the Ford people. One day he came back to school, thrilled. He said, "Mr. Bowhay, I have a job."

I said, "What?" (thinking the Ford people had given him a job.)

He said, "I am going to work in a bank." (Laughter)

That is one of the things we have to look out for—the changeableness of youth, and the fact that so many times the things that they do are the things that happen to be at the door when they want to get out and earn money, and take their place in the community.

The suggestion was, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals is doing something along this line, that we should make available to industry, the schools, young people, all kind of information about the occupations and occupational opportunities that are available. They are trying to develop the vocational outlook service. I know, however, what we get will depend upon the coöperation of business and labor unions, government agencies, and schools. I want to go back to Mr. Williams' very important suggestions, the importance of young people knowing what they really want to do, and for what they are fitted.

I believe there are a number of people in this room, who can tell us what is going on in some of our communities, sponsored by the schools or the community to solve some of these problems. I am going to sit

down and trust to luck that the Quaker system of waiting until the spirit moves you, works rather quickly, because I don't really want to call on people to make set speeches.

There will be a bonus of some kind to the first person who gets up and starts the ball rolling.

GUY M. HOYT (Director of Attendance and Employment, Los Angeles City Schools): I would like to ask Mr. Williams if he has figures more or less approximate as to the size of this problem, how many young people in the United States need more help than they are getting along these lines? How many are you caring for through your NYA program, and if you aren't caring for all of them, who is going to?

MR. WILLIAMS: Well, I think we are all familiar with the fact that the 1930 census shows around 21,700,000 in the age group above sixteen and under twenty-four, that we are particularly concerned with, and that there are some four to six million of that group that you see that aren't accounted for, either in school or in industry or being married and at home as housewives, so that you have a tremendous number there—four to six millions.

Of course this thing is not going to solve their problem altogether, it will help, but some of us have very significant material that is coming out of these studies that have been recently made as to what, if anything, in the way of help has been given to them through the school work that they have done.

I suggest, if you haven't a copy yet of the preliminary report on WPA study of Forty Thousand Urban Youth, that you write and get it. The WPA study on Urban Youth—that is a study of forty thousand youths who left sixth grade in 1929, '31, and '33 and what happened to them after they left school, and what do they think the school could have done that it didn't do to have helped them in their effort to get employment.

You can get that by writing to WPA in Washington, 1734 New York Avenue.

Then there is the Regents Study of some fifty-odd thousand, the New York Regents Study.*

Those studies bring out some very significant things, they bring out the fact that most young people, while in school, had no idea that there would be any difficulty at all in landing a job; or in speedily advancing themselves. It is almost pathetic to read what they answer to such questions, and even up to as late as '33, eighty per cent of the youngsters who

*Publications of The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company: *Education for American Life*, A New Program for the State of New York, \$2.00; Eckert, Ruth and Marshall, Thomas O., *When Youth Leave School*, \$3.00; Grace, Alonzo G. and Moe, G. A., *State Aid and School Costs*, \$3.50; Judd, Charles H., *Preparation of School Personnel*, \$1.50; Laine, Elizabeth, *Motion Pictures and Radio*, \$1.75; Maller, Julius B., *School and Community*, \$3.50; Norton, Thomas L., *Education for Work*, \$2.75; Reeves, F. W.; Fansler, T.; and Houle, C. O., *Adult Education*, \$2.00; Spaulding, Francis T., *High School and Life*, \$3.00; Wilson, Howard E., *Education for Citizenship*, \$2.75; Winslow, C.—E. A., *The School Health Program*, \$1.50.

left the eighth grade and then floundered around for four years, said at the end of the four years that they had no idea while in school that there would be any difficulty in getting employment.

Many of them point out that they would have been better off if they had taken a general education course; they think that is one reason they didn't get along; others felt that they would have been benefited if they had had some vocational work, but only about twenty-seven per cent of the total interestingly enough, very few of them, ever thought of going back to the school for any help in their trouble.

I don't think that is particularly to be held against the school, except that I think when I tried to get a job after I left college, I did write back to my president and asked him if he knew of any openings anywhere, and felt that that was the proper and desirable place to go, and I am sure many of you had the same attitude only that does not seem to be true in the high school as it is in the colleges.

Most of them secured jobs through their friends; twenty-nine out of one hundred that got jobs got jobs through friends, and they list as the most valuable thing they got out of high school was to make acquaintances of people who were in a position to help them get employment. The next most helpful way of getting a job was through some employer that they worked for while in high school—quite interesting—I don't say this in criticism at all, but only about ten per cent got employment through any kind of placement agency, sixty-five per cent got jobs through friends, former employers, or parents—and parents were the lowest one of the three. Newspaper advertisements and government employment agencies accounted for four per cent of those who got jobs. There is some extremely significant material there and I think, Mr. Hoyt, it points up the job as well as being just about inclusive of the whole group.

Of course understanding that the resourcefulness on the part of the young people is after all the basic content of our hope, and it is more than all the things that we are going to put in the pot together, we are all agreed to that, but you cannot say that this thing limits itself to just those out of work, because there are five hundred thousand coming on now who will be out next year and there will be no work for them, and you have got a million and a half to two million coming on every year, and that is really our group. We have opened ninety-six stations in thirty-seven states, where we have established Junior Employment Agencies and through those some two hundred seventy thousand youngsters have been placed. We are trying to get states to take those places over as fast as we can, as a matter of fact they are taking them over. I only agreed to put money into this for the simple reason that there wasn't anybody else in Washington that had any money they could put in. I think it is an integral part of the employment office's work joined in with the school's. I have the

feeling that it has been a pretty economical expenditure of money for the government. It has cost us an average of about fifteen dollars a placement and I have contended to the president that that was a mighty good fifteen dollars and well spent, as far as government expenditure was concerned. I don't know whether the business world would always agree with me or not on the expenditures of the good taxpayers' money but I think that is a pretty good expenditure.

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: Mr. Hoyt, would you let us know of some of the work that is being done in the employment line in Los Angeles?

MR. HOYT (Director of Attendance and Employment, Los Angeles City Schools): Through some help the NYA provided and through a setup of a junior employment agency which we had there for some fifteen to seventeen years we have been able to bridge the gap for a considerable number of these young people who are leaving high school and floundering around trying to get themselves located in a job.

We have found this: that it seems to be very desirable, in fact necessary to hitch this school placement work up definitely with the state employment service. If we didn't do that we would be duplicating each others' effort and the taxpayer and employer is fed up on people coming around to his plant and importuning him for jobs for youngsters from various and sundry publicly supported agencies. It seems that if any of you are fixing to go into the employment business in your state or in your own cities that you would probably want to get in touch first of all with your state employment service and see what affiliations might be developed there. I think that the points that have come out here, regarding the whole program of the National Youth Administration ought to be sort of emphasized on this bridging the gap between the formal academic or vocational school and the entrance into industry and then the follow-up in industry to see if these young people are adjusting and if not why not, because there again we may learn a lot from the experience of these young people; as to our methods and our content in the schools I don't suppose we have done enough of that yet.

HERMAN A. SPINDT (Manager, Bureau of Guidance and Placement, University of California): I have some doubts about government—at least the Federal government, being able to set up any program that is going to take care of the situation. The problem is not merely that of placement. After all, placement doesn't create new jobs, it merely places people in jobs that already exist, and the problem as a long term thing, at least we must create new jobs, additional jobs, over those that now exist.

I was rather interested in talking with a business man not so very long ago about that problem and I asked him this question: Would it be possible to set up—would there be interest enough in the businessmen of

this particular community to set up a committee which with the state employment division, with the placement officers or the educational directors of the schools, would sit together to attempt to stimulate the number of jobs that there might be in a particular community?

He assured me that in his opinion that could be done, and he said that he himself would make a distinct, deliberate effort to accomplish just that thing.

I am not sure how the businessmen feel about this, but I am quite sure in my own mind that many times the man frequently has to choose between the question whether he shall put on another man or not. I wonder if a community committee of some kind that would bring out the desirability of additional jobs might be able to create in each of the communities of California and of other states, a job or two in each community that might go a long way toward solving the problem of additional jobs.

I read an article a good many years ago, which was headed something like this: that the prayer of the worker was, "Give us this day our daily job" and that is the prayer of so many of these young people who say: give us this day our daily job, and so it isn't just a matter of placement.

Neither is it primarily a matter of guidance. I know a lot of people say: if you can just guide these young people correctly we could answer all the questions. But like the boy who became a banker after training to be an automobile repair man, so we may be advising many in directions where they cannot possibly go, and if we simply advise from the viewpoint of their interest then we must face the fact that twenty-five to thirty per cent at least, even of high-school seniors want to go into the professions and that only from five to seven per cent can go there. We have to recognize that forty-five to fifty per cent of these boys must work at ordinary labor the rest of their lives. We cannot get jobs in the line of their interests; we probably can in the line of their capabilities but mere guidance, mere placement does not take care of the situation, unless there is a recognition of the man who has the job that he ought to create, help out in creating, the additional one.

I would like to know what the Oakland Circulation Manager does when he is considering a question of that kind, and whether he might be able through a committee to persuade his boss to grant him the additional help.

P. M. Knox (Circulation Manager, Oakland Tribune, Oakland, California): The newspapers in the State of California in one way or another employ approximately sixty thousand boys; in the nation, as far as we can find out it is a little better than two million. Those are of varying ages, but at least a third of them are over sixteen—perhaps more.

I don't know that I can say to Mr. Spindt that if we sat down with a group of other people we could take on a lot more men, or a lot more

youth. We would have to have something for them to do if we did that. That seems to be the economic system that we have, and we will have to be guided by it.

When we come to this subject of the youth problems, I am simply appalled by the scope of it. I am appalled when I think of the responsibilities that you school people have to those young people, and I am equally appalled when I think of the responsibilities that we who employ a lot of them have.

It is along that line, in other words, the realization of our responsibilities that have brought the newspapers of this state and also of the nation to some sort of a program to see what we can do about it, to do better by those that we have and to take more of them on.

I don't mean to particularly make a speech on this subject, but I think we newspapers as a group are perhaps the largest employers of youth in the country, and therefore what we do may have some bearing on this problem.

But a large appropriation has been set aside in the East, and a survey of some six hundred thousand young men will be made during the next year to determine what effect newspaper work has on their educational advantages, their vocational training, the moral effect, and the general health aspect. From that survey we hope to do a more constructive job and to take on more of the youth group as we go along.

The same thing applies in the State of California, to a lesser degree. I might tell you that in working with them, though, we have run into some problems which perhaps you can help us solve, at least they should be interesting to you people who are turning these young fellows out we have to use later, and that is the lack of acceptance of responsibility. That is one thing. And we find that we get no help from the parents. When I say that I mean in the aggregate. Perhaps you educators also know when they send Willie down to you in the morning it is with a good deal of the feeling: well, that is disposed of until half-past three.

We catch them until half-past three, and they until dinner time. We have frequent contact with the parents of each boy in our employ, or each boy that in any way is engaged in the distribution and sale of our product on our particular newspaper and I am astounded at the lack of interest that parents have in what he does. I am even more astounded at how little they know what he is doing. They don't understand it, and the only thing that happens is that if the boy gets in a little trouble or doesn't do the job as well as we think he should and we have to take it up with him, the parent feels that we are abusing little Willie.

I think if educators could include in their program some place something to make the parents understand their problem. (Laughter)—I see you share my difficulties.

Well I am glad we recognize that the difficulty is not my own. I am very much concerned about something else and that is the regimentation—I don't profess to be a rugged individualist, and get into a controversy, if I could on that subject—but I will say this: that we find that when we attempt to work with boys, I wonder if school people have the same problem, I am sure the NYA will eventually if they haven't had it yet, but when you regiment these boys you won't get very far. I think the Boy Scouts have the best solution of the way to handle young people that I have yet seen, in that they interest each boy in some phase of the work, they have a varied program, they interest him in it; if he does well they pat him on the back; they recognize the thing which he is doing thereby inspiring further interest and greater progress.

We have adapted that to newspaper practice with great success. It is paying off in our box office, and I am wondering if the schools cannot individualize their efforts in some way.

I talk a lot to school principals in our work with boys, they usually tell me if the taxpayers could give them a little more money and they could have more courses and more instructors that could be possible, but I think in the projects Mr. Williams may foster, if they can get individual interest on the part of that boy, so they develop in those kids something they want to do so badly they will make a success of it later. While they won't solve the problem en masse, they will inspire some individuals to set a better pace.

I got a little off the track, but this boy thing is a thing I feel very deeply—I am glad to report to you that newspapers as a whole, as great employers of boys are recognizing the responsibility, and even feeling it more keenly along the line of Mr. Spindt's suggestion—if any group or individual wants to approach the organized newspapers in the State of California either through the publishers association or the circulation managers' association, we will sit down and work with them any time to help put more boys to work and to do the job constructively. (Applause)

ANNE DE G. TREADWELL (Director, National Youth Association, California): I should like to enter this discussion at the point where it began with Mr. Williams' response to the question of support, based on our own very limited experience in California with the organized placement services, of the public placement services of the community, I think we can definitely conclude that the problem of adequate service in this field of the youth group is not necessarily so much a matter of support as it is a matter of alignment of existing facilities for the benefit of this group.

I think before the development of the National Youth Administration program the existence of junior divisions in the placement service was the exception rather than the rule.

The Youth Administration at the beginning of its program and largely for demonstration purposes as Mr. Williams has pointed out,

helped to institute counseling services for the individual guidance of young people with problems in the selection of vocations and in certain personal aspects of their lives. And I think the establishment of those counselling services has pointed very definitely to the necessity for setting apart junior divisions in the employment service which shall be equipped by reason of the personnel employed in them to have responsibilities solely for this group of inexperienced young workers. They are certainly better equipped to make available to industry those young people who are—although they may be inexperienced, although they may be only partly trained—capable of performing certain of the jobs which a community has to offer, and those same young people certainly are very much discriminated against in a system in which they are grouped together with persons who can be accurately classified occupationally, and where they must compete with the skilled experienced workers of the community. So much is this the case that in California the state employment service has officially taken the step of recognizing the necessity for setting up specialized junior divisions in each of its offices and is moving along in that direction as rapidly as possible.

I think the other extremely important result of this experience is to point out again for the first time in many communities the necessity for a coördination of school services to young people in the field of preparation for employment and of employment services where it alone is performing the placement function, and I think we are perhaps convinced that either we must operate these services on the basis of affiliation, as has been done in Los Angeles, affiliation between the school department and the placement service, or the two agencies must be so coördinated in their work that the placement service shall have available through the school records and the advantage of advice and counsel from persons who have handled young people during their school years, and may in turn be in a position to interpret to the school the occupational requirements and standards imposed by the industries in the community. (Applause)

MR. WILLIAMS: Mr. Chairman, I am sorry, I have just got to go. I wanted to say this one thing before I go: that I hope you all will take this business of joining forces with the NYA this coming year, in making an experiment in your schools whereby we do the thing I talked about. What I would like us to do everywhere is to have you say to us—I have got a group of boys in the school here that I would like to put into your work project structure, and I will tie their work in the school in such a way into the work that they will do in the field as to make possible this thing that you are talking about.

I wish to ask you to join with us everywhere to do that, and I suggest you get in touch with your state directors of the NYA, sit down and say:

this is what Williams said, and I want to try to do it, and he tells me that you will want to do it, and see what you can do locally along that line.

I think that something like that is terribly important for the two reasons: first of actually giving this boy work, and second doing it under an auspices that puts a little money in his pockets.

I thank you all. I am delighted to have been here with you.
(Applause)

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: Our style may be cramped by not having Dr. Williams here but we are not going to close just yet.

I am going to ask what industry can do to help out in this situation.

We have had a suggestion from Mr. Williams as to a fine type of vocational guidance, how to guide youngsters in the proper vocation—however we find out—(I don't want this to go too far, this discussion, because as Mr. Williams said, I am absolutely in harmony with labor in its great big fundamental fine ideas), we find youngsters who can get jobs if they can get union cards; if they can't get union cards they can't get jobs. That means that we are right up against some problem that we are going to have to solve with the help of the labor unions probably it cannot be solved by the school people alone, it cannot be solved by business alone. It will have to be solved by some coöperative scheme.

I know that Mr. Rich has some ideas on training by the apprentice system. I know that vocational training in high school cannot go as far as some people would like, that is you cannot make experts in high school. I know that in the large number of industries you top off a rather good general education with a six-months intensive vocational training and you will have all the vocational training that might be necessary, but I would like to know what the answer is for the schools, if we can give all the vocational training needed in the most skilled trades you are sure that the youngsters aren't going to do what they prepare for when they are in high school—what is the answer? Does the apprenticeship system have anything to do along that line?

NEVILLE J. RICH (Vice-President and General Manager of Precision Electrotypes Company, San Francisco, California): I don't think we can go into the apprenticeship question at all; it is too complex; you are talking about your union regulations in many crafts. Even if you had an open apprenticeship problem you would still have to have the jobs. Your main problem with your youth, obviously is to create the jobs for them; if the jobs aren't there they don't go to work, but I would like to develop it along a different angle, in connection with what Mr. Spindt was saying, of making extra jobs, I really think something definite can be done in the school systems, and the vocational guidance system along that line.

At the present time I don't have a great deal of contact with employing of youth, but in the last decade, before the present one, 1920 to 1930,

I hired thousands of men and boys, interviewed thousands of men and boys, and the most extraordinary thing in that experience, I am talking now entirely of the high-school boy, because in the offices in those periods of expansion (1925 to 1930) there was a tremendous expansion in the force, both in the office and the factory, so I am confining this entirely to that group from high school, when as I say, we would see ten or fifteen a day, sometimes.

I don't think that the boys have changed at all since then. I still have hired some boys in the last months. They will come down with a card from the vocational guidance or from the employment office, whichever it may be, and they will have the street address, and won't know the name of the firm they are coming to; they will come in and say a friend sent them in; they won't remember the friend's name; they won't remember the name of the firm; they won't know what they are applying for. Boys will come into the employment office absolutely and completely ignorant of why they are coming in there, yet they are coming in for a job.

They know the box score in the baseball games; they know who is playing at the Coliseum Theater, but they have given apparently no thought to the necessity of the approach to getting a job.

That is a very severe indictment, and I suppose people will say that I am talking through my hat. But that is my experience—it still is my experience, by the same token this is true, I have talked to employers. The boy comes in to a temporary job and is not very good, and the employer can't wait to get rid of him; but if the boy comes in for a temporary job and shows certain trends, that temporary job is likely to be a permanent job.

I think industry is still—though conditions are poor—anxious to get boys who will really go to work and take an interest in it.

The average kid can't wait until lunch time to go out on the lot to play baseball; he can't wait until five o'clock to get out of the place. We all know we can't give him any responsibility, he has to be trained, but you can't have a boy who is playful. There is a tremendous amount of hazard, of his damaging material, misplacing material, and disturbing the routine by carelessness.

I don't think the average employer expects a boy of seventeen or eighteen to have the judgment or the responsibility of an adult, but he does want him to be a little bit considerate, and anxious to learn, but you don't have a chance to teach them—they know!

I think for vocational guidance along certain industries we have had splendid results from boys in specialized fields, taken from vocational training, but I think it is limited to very specialized technical training fields.

I do want to urge this one point though, it is not on the subject at all, Mr. Chairman, but if boys (if I don't say anything about the girls it is

because I have never had much to do with them) could be given a six-months course in how to ask for a job, so that their hands are clean, so they have a tie on, a shirt on even, if it is only a tail of a shirt, it doesn't have to be a two-dollar shirt, but a shirt, their hair brushed, their faces reasonably clean and if they could be taught not to fiddle around with the stuff on my desk, and keep from reading my mail while I am talking to them—I am not exaggerating, and if they have a few minutes to find out the name of the firm and what it does, and to be slightly modest in their desire to learn, I think jobs could be created. I know most firms would try to get fellows like that. When I get a boy like that, I keep him even if it means spreading the work out; I would rather use a skilled man and make him work a little overtime than take a chance on one of these donkeys.

FORREST G. MURDOCK (Principal, San Jose High School, San Jose, California): Everyone has spoken on the panel but myself. The speaker is gone, and a number of people are leaving, and I would not dare to go home and face my wife and say that I hadn't said anything.

I haven't much to offer, perhaps, but I must say a few words to clear my conscience anyway.

It seems to me that there is a great deal in what Mr. Rich has just said. I believe that I can subscribe more and more to the theory of the rugged individualist even in these days, regardless of the arguments against that theory. I know that you can't work if you don't find a job, that is, you have to have a job, but in many instances I could support Mr. Rich in what he has said. The reports that come from other people, about young people trying to find a job, and instances where youngsters have gone out and gone in to a concern where apparently there was no opening and they have created an opening—jobs beget jobs; income begets income, and I think that we would all agree that if the seven or eleven or whatever there were million people out of work to-morrow, that we would probably solve many of our problems.

I cannot subscribe to this theory: that was pronounced very shortly after the beginning of the so-called depression, one of our noted educators made this statement: the whole world is in a mess, and we are part of the mess. And I think even in governmental agencies all the way through we have immediately attempted to reconstruct everything, forgetting the fact that there was a pretty good basis, and that we should reconstruct probably in part, but the reconstruction of everything—I think we have got to go back to our fundamentals to a certain extent.

For example, I would not quite agree with Mr. Williams when he bemoans the fact that a student does not know what he wants to do. I think that is fundamentally solved. I am glad that the secondary-school boy does not always know what he wants to do; he has a searching mind.

Many of our college people don't know exactly what they want to do, and I think sometimes that is quite healthy. There are exceptions, of course. A youngster who knows that he is going to be a doctor and begins at an early age and continues on through with that idea in mind that he does become a physician and surgeon, that is very fine, but there are many of us in this room, I dare say, if we took a vote we would find that a good many have wavered a good deal from the profession or occupation from which they started, and probably it is a good thing, but I think there is a lot to be gained in training our youngsters and in impressing them with the fact that they must go out and employ a little bit of this rugged individualism in order to get jobs, and that brings us back I think to that fundamental that we have to have probably a basic curriculum.

The facts of the matter are that with few exceptions it doesn't seem to me it matters much what you teach them. I know that a good many will not agree, but I rather believe that it doesn't make much difference, with little exception what you teach youngsters, and I think you can prove that definitely. It would take some time to prove it, but I think it can be proven. We have a basic curriculum, or basic things that we all should know—English, spoken and written, and so on, but outside of a few fundamental things it is attitudes, conceptions, and ideas, and I think that we have to start from where we are, and if we can, by using Mr. Spindt's method of gathering a group of business men together and finding out what businesses in a town can absorb a few more boys and girls, and I think in part we would solve it in that way.

It is not a problem that can be solved over night, and it is not a problem that you can have a plan which will immediately be put into effect, but it is going back to some of these original things and developing some of these rugged individualisms that I think is of great deal of value.

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: Our group here has been so polite that they have not interrupted the panel. I hope there is someone in the audience who will have something to say at this time.

MR. FURBISH (Oakland): Mr. Rich's experience with boys seeking employment made me wish to take a few minutes to tell of an attempt to prevent that experience, in a few of the schools of Oakland.

A year ago last fall there were two men and two women freed from work in their classes for about six weeks to study the industries of the community in Oakland, and on the basis of that study and of their many conferences with employers, they made a plan for a five-months course, and we have been working it now for three semesters.

These teachers found out what employers would be willing to have groups visit their plants and they found out what men in the community would be willing to come into the classrooms and tell what employers expected of the young people when they came to their positions to work,

and a course of study was made out, some of the parts of it were: filling out application blanks, for instance; finding out the names of the firms in the community, so that when they went there they would not go in without knowing what firm they were applying to for a job.

They were even taught to put on a shirt and a tie when they went to make application, and the girls were taught to put on stockings. I don't know that we have been one hundred per cent successful in this course that we call "Special Planning," but for three semesters three high schools in Oakland have been giving the course. We do know that a great many of the people who have taken that course have gone into employment. We rather carefully selected those who should go into it. We could not put all of our high 12's into it because we didn't plan for that. Those who intended to go to college, for instance, we felt had a vocation that they were preparing for in doing college preparatory work, and we know that a large fraction of them aren't employable anyway, in most of the industries of the city, so we left those two groups out, and we selected our two classes in the school, thirty boys and thirty girls who wanted employment immediately after graduation and who we thought had the qualities that might be trained for employment, and we feel that it has been fairly successful.

MR. FITZGERALD: In my city it happens to be my task to supervise the taking of the school census; at one time we employed a great many boys and there was a time after the war for over twenty years it has been my job to supervise the school census and I found that there were a great many young people employed in the various industries. Of course when the depression came on we found very few young people were being employed, although there were firms that were glad to have them, but they were putting on married people mostly. For the last few years I have been quite surprised that there never were very many young people employed where there had been in some of the industries hundreds of them, and I investigated that.

I found this difficulty and I believe our public schools have something to do with it. We are trying to make everything soft for our boys and girls now-a-days. We don't make them do the things that they ought to do whether they like to do them or not, and I say no boy and no girl will ever be successful if they do not learn in their childhood to do the things they do not like to do, whether they want to do them or not, if they are the right things to do. (Applause)

I have followed that same thing up, and have found a lot of our young people were getting divorces too, for that reason. Their parents raised them to do the things they like; when they got married and found they had to do some things they did not like they went to the divorce courts.

I find too a good many of them want the same wages experienced men have been getting. I go to industry and say: don't you want these boys? And they say they do, and that they don't know what they are going to do when the older men become unemployable, but they can't pay for inexperienced untrained help what the experienced employees are getting.

Is it the fault of us who are teaching, or not? I dont know. I am afraid it is.

We can't make things soft for a youngster and then expect him to take jobs that are not pleasant to do.

MR. MURDOCK: I would like to ask Mr. Knox if he is in close touch with the councilors of the schools where he secures employment for the different boys. How many have you employed?

MR. KNOX: We do not take them unless the schools say that they are competent to do the work and also do their school work, and then as the boys progress in their work we check with the schools frequently, not as frequently as we would like to, and perhaps too frequently for some of the schools; they seem a little annoyed with us, but we stick with them.

MR. MURDOCK: My question was that if the NYA agencies are more and more controlled by the schools (in other words Mr. Williams inferred that the schools could take over this program), I wondered if it would be possible in the years to come, for example, in California, or any place, where NYA is being conducted—supposing the schools, if they had for instance a six or seven youth on a six-dollars-per-month basis, if they were allowed thirty or forty units, on the fifteen dollars adult basis unit if they could take their grades and place them in an occupation, business, wouldn't be able to hire and pay their wages perhaps, but the school might supervise this job and secure the money from the NYA in order to help the boy along, in the same way that we have provided jobs in the school.

MRS. TREADWELL: I should say that—in answer to that question—that that proportion of Mr. Williams' discussion, to which you refer, was very definitely connected with the program of the youth administration for the young person, who is out of school and unemployed, unemployed for the reason that he cannot adjust to such job opportunities as may exist in his community, and I think that we feel definitely as an agency that the responsibility that we have to that group is a very great one.

Now the expense which Mr. Williams described of employing young people in that category as is done in a variety of situations throughout the country, has demonstrated I think to the satisfaction of those of us who are immediately concerned with its operation, the value of practical work experience for such young people as preparation for absorption into the industrial life of their communities.

What Mr. Williams was definitely pointing out I feel was the growing realization on the part of the Youth Administration that that kind of

practical work experience is valuable as it is augmented and enhanced by increased educational opportunity, educational opportunity at the level of the young person who is so employed.

MR. MURDOCK: I mean, suppose you take thirty boys and girls and place them in industry for a half day at a time, and bring them back to the school the other half, and increase their education to thirteen or fourteen years, meanwhile supplementing their going and paying them, but have it under the control of the school rather than an agency outside the school.

MRS. TREADWELL: I think there is no possibility at all of the Youth Administration operating a program which involved the employment of young people in private industry. I think necessarily such activities on the part of the youth administration must be confined to public service and public work of various kinds.

Mr. Williams' concern with increasing inclusion of the schools and the school systems in planning this type of activities and in assisting to actually operate it, is in the interest of enhancing such practical work experience as can be provided through the medium of employment in the activities of various public and quasi-public agencies by a sound and integrated program of the latter training to accompany such practical work experience, and when Mr. Williams speaks of the schools entering this picture more and more, it isn't with the idea, I am sure, that were they to take over entirely such program as he indicated might be the case, it would be on a basis of providing a practical work experience similar to that which is now provided for the Youth Administration and backing that up and laying a foundation under that of appropriate related training, but I want to repeat that the concern of the Youth Administration in a large area is for his young boy or girl who is both out of work and out of the school, who is not a graduate student, who has not had the opportunity, the privilege which has enabled him to secure more than in many cases the barest elements of educational preparation, for assimilation in the community.

QUESTION: We have been talking entirely this afternoon about boys, and I am wondering if anything special is being done with this large group of unemployed girls?

MRS. TREADWELL: The Youth Administration is of course concerned with the opportunities of the kind Mr. Williams has discussed for both boys and girls, nationally; it is my belief that the program is divided about equally between boys and girls; the girls are employed in much the same way that Mr. Williams described in appropriate activities for their preparation for their future life. In many cases such activities would be in the field of industrial experiences; in the cases of many of the girls the appropriate field very definitely is homemaking, nursery school work, and care

of children, so that in the case of girls Youth Administration is concerned both with the development of young people for later absorption into industry and for their better preparation for making their own lives; the problem of unskilled girls who are numerous in such program, is the most acute that we face in connection with planning the work program, but as a matter of fact the activities which now engage girls through the NYA program are quite varied and I think it is safe to say that certain new fields have been opened to girls through that medium, for example, in Los Angeles, again to go back to that good example of a varied program, we have employed through the sponsorship of the school department, girls in nursery work and have found that they are extremely successful in it.

In many of the activities related to plant propagation, in seeding and salting of roots, and cataloging, they have done a great job; part of the job of propagating plants for schools, through the school department in Los Angeles; again, they are employed in poster work in the fields of commercial art, and in the more stereotyped activity of sewing, which we do to a great extent on the power basis, and in homemaking and nursery school clinic assistance, and other such fields.

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: Just supplementing what Mrs. Treadwell has said, if we say why we have been talking about boys—it is the same as when we say, "The teacher—she," we mean both; so when we say, "The boy—he," we mean both.

MR. HOYT: Maybe I am just having a brain storm here this afternoon, but it seems to me, Mr. Williams has brought us an unusual message; he is the head man, so far as this youth is concerned, in the re-organization program in Washington, because that Youth Administration has been shifted from the WPA into another group that we will hear more about later. It is also significant it seems to me that the ante was raised from seventy-five million to a hundred million dollars, and came pretty nearly going to the original hundred and twenty-three million requested, it seems to me very significant if a man comes here from Washington and says to us school people representing the whole United States in the secondary field, we have practically put this problem in your lap, it seems to me we haven't this thing clear enough in mind here in this group. Maybe we can't do it. I am inclined to think we school people are not going to be able to do it. I think we have been cloistered so long and we have been so far out of touch with the community, particularly with the industrial part of the community, that we cannot handle it.

I don't know whether you want to take time to discuss that or not, but it seems to me when a man comes from Washington and puts that in our lap, we ought to squirm around a little; we might find we have something.

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: Dr. Judd, who is in charge of the educational program of the NYA is right here. Is there anything you can say at this time, Dr. Judd, that will help us out? Remember, we have a sectional meeting to-morrow and we might talk some about this type of thing.

DR. JUDD: Well, Mr. Chairman, I am not very official; I am a newcomer in the NYA, but I rather re-inforce what Mr. Hoyt has just said.

I am perfectly clear from my own point of view, let me speak for a moment from that point of view, that unless NYA and the secondary-school people get into coöperation, both of them are going to fail. I am perfectly clear in my mind that the secondary school isn't now doing what in the future it has to do for young people.

Mr. Williams has said to me very frequently: You are more acquainted with the schools than I am, and I know some of you are more familiar with the NYA—I went on the Advisory Committee of the NYA after it was first organized and I was skeptical as a school man about the possibility, the dangers of another organization stepping into the field that I felt belonged to the secondary schools, and before I accepted the position on the Advisory Committee I went down and had conference with Mr. Williams. Mr. Williams has always been, and I have heard him repeatedly make the statement, that he supports the President in saying that this work that is being done for young people by the Federal Government must be based upon that fundamental principle—that the American people have in regard to the care of young people that age. Now if this organization will take very seriously what Mr. Williams said, and he did come from Washington for the specific purpose of getting this contact with school people at a point where they are influential—if you people will accept that challenge and begin to coöperate with him I think there are very large possibilities of elaborating new schemes that are not contemplated in any official dictum that has been given up to this time, but can be created, and I can add the further testimony that the reason why Congress was persuaded on this particular occasion to raise the amount of money was that the high-school department program is one of the most popular features among legislators on this program.

Let's get busy about this business. I don't think that there is the slightest possibility of either the NYA or the high schools solving this problem unless somebody does something about it, and if the high schools think they are going to solve this problem by sitting tight and doing exactly what they have done during the years that are past, I as an observer of the school system, say to you: you are headed for wreckage.

The secondary school has got to do something in this field. The Federal Government is not going to do it permanently and in a form that is without recognition of the secondary schools. Now can we get ourselves aroused to the place where we will do this thing in coöperation? If we can

do it in coöperation we can do a great job for the nation and for the young people.

We have sat here during these three or four days and talked about young people, and certainly the problems are numerous enough. I think it has been one of the most illuminating experiences that I have had as a school man to see this group which has come during these various sessions and listened to these discussions of the problems of the youth. If you could get them as vividly in your mind as one gets them by visiting some of these centers, believe me, you would make up your mind that the time will come when secondary education and the educational system in general has got to get busy about this business of solving the problem of young people.

Take that remark of Mr. Williams just as seriously as you can possibly take it. I am perfectly certain it was made for the purpose of stimulating you to action in the matter. (Applause)

CHAIRMAN BOWHAY: I don't know that we could possibly have stopped on a better note than that. I know that if the schools and the NYA coöperate in solving this problem it is going to take the coöperation of business, labor, the unions, the schools, government, and all agencies, if we are going to really solve this problem.

It is going to mean that we have to get a new conception of business. I do not believe that it is possible to make all those extra jobs unless we have a different concept of business. It is going to be a big job, but it is a big challenge and I am going to try to pass on to the people who will be here to-morrow the idea that you people have asked to have some problems solved that we have not solved, and see if we cannot have that meeting to-morrow where Mr. Dewey Anderson will be and Mr. Arthur Gould of Los Angeles to help us solve some more of these problems, but we will try to keep that in mind and people going back to different parts of the United States keep in mind the idea of coöperation between the NYA and the schools, if we wish to be a success.

Adjournment.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SECTION

Wednesday, July 5, 1939

The Junior High-School Section met in the East Room of Hotel Empire. Principal M. E. Herriott of Central Junior High School, Los Angeles, California, presided and opened the meeting at 2:00 p. m. as follows:

Young adolescents do look forward most earnestly to taking their place as citizens in the world of adults. "When I am a man . . .," "When I have children . . .," and similar expressions are common among boys and girls of the early teens. We adults need not try very hard to remember when such thoughts ran riot through our minds as we met the tricks and frustrations of these vital childhood years.

It is but natural, therefore, that young adolescents in our junior high schools should be making test flights into the realm of adulthood—succeeding in achieving status sometimes, frequently meeting with rebuffs because of the clumsiness of these first efforts.

It was after deliberate thought that we chose this topic for the junior-high-school section of this series of meetings on the problems of youth and citizenship. Likewise, we deliberately chose Dr. Quillen as one of the best qualified persons to discuss the subject thoughtfully and penetratingly. It is a great pleasure to present him.

YOUNG ADOLESCENTS LOOK TOWARD CITIZENSHIP

I. JAMES QUILEN

Assistant Professor of Education
Stanford University, Stanford University, California

The world of the adolescent is not bounded by experiences within the narrow circle of his close associates. He lives in a complex of relationships that stretch beyond the face-to-face contacts of his family and small group to make up the society of his local community, the state, the region, the nation, the world. As he grows older and approaches nearer the time when he must take up adult responsibilities in a democratic society, those wider fields have increasing significance for him. He must learn how to participate in those activities in which the individual associates himself with organized groups in the effort to solve such common problems as unemployment, poverty, crime, public health, recreation, and the care of the aged. He must learn to participate to the full of his ability in the scope of democratic life. It is with those wider relationships, which may be called social-civic, that I will deal.

It should be said, at the outset, that no distinction can be sharply and clearly drawn between the area of these social-civic relationships and that

of immediate personal relationships. The two overlap. Basically, perhaps, the difference between them is one of scope rather than of kind. Hence, though social-civic relationships in America to-day are generally impersonal, the attitude of the individual toward, and the participation of the individual in, them quite often rests upon his feeling of attraction to (or revulsion from) the personalities of leaders in the social-civic sphere as well as upon the ideas, ideals, and symbols involved. To a certain extent, too, social-civic activities must involve face-to-face contacts. The two areas are thus interlocked, and it is essential that the social studies teacher should never be oblivious of that interlocking. The richness of satisfaction for the needs in each of the areas largely depends, in a democratic society, upon fulfillment of needs in the other.

The significance of social-civic relationships for the teacher of the social studies can hardly be overemphasized. It is essential for the adolescent that he gain some idea of his own place and significance in the whole of the community. And it is likewise essential for a democracy that each member of the society gain some knowledge of the whole community and of his place in it. It then is the task of the social studies teacher to promote learning commensurate with the abilities of each individual.

The achievement of social-civic understandings and attitudes is difficult to-day. All adolescents are concerned with immediate personal-social relationships, for these have been an integral part of their direct experience from birth. Most individuals by the time of adolescence have a well-developed pattern of tension and response in such relationships. But for the adolescent it is not so with social-civic relationships, which have a large degree of impersonality. Though sensitivity and insight are necessary for the preservation of democracy and are, consequently, a matter of great concern for social education, their attainment has been in the course of the years increasingly difficult for the adolescent. The achievement of this understanding has become ever less easy and more necessary. The teacher's problem has, therefore, grown harder to solve.

Almost from its inception, social education in the United States has stressed civic training. The public high school became an established institution during the Jacksonian period, when the political victory of frontier democracy, the extension of suffrage, and the prevalence of mass action emphasized the need for effective political education as a *sine qua non* of democracy. Educational leaders seized upon this argument for tax-supported universal secondary education. Their success was phenomenal and the task of developing citizenship became an accepted function of secondary education.

The task at that time did not seem complex, for social-civic relations in the community of the early nineteenth century still had a considerable

degree of intimacy. American culture was still largely agrarian and handicraft in character. Transportation and communication were relatively slow, and large-scale industry was just becoming established in American economy. The family, the farm, and the rural community set the pattern and tempo of American life. Political questions were freely discussed at home, on visits from one farm to another, and around the stove in the general store. Avenues of opportunity were many in the expanding economy of a growing country; there was little feeling of economic or civic frustration. The transition from the life of a child to that of a socially responsible adult began early and was relatively smooth. New England boys became ship's officers in their teens; a fourteen-year-old boy on the Western frontier could ride and shoot like a man and do almost a man's share in the work about the farm. Young people generally grew up into their work, married early, and quickly established themselves as responsible members of the community.

The social conditions of that era tended to encourage the rather narrow conception of civic education which prevailed from the outset. The abundance of economic and social opportunities and the limitation of artistic and "cultural" activities by the pressure of economic life fostered a view of civic education in terms of political democracy—the training of a citizen to understand the basic documents and traditions and to master the rudiments of institutional processes in the American state and nation. The prevailing theory of government was that of "natural rights" individualism, with the function of the state largely protective, and with a sharp cleavage in conception between economic life and political life. Thus envisaged, civic education was simple and presented no great challenge to the school. Americans generally believed that if the individual could read and write and had some understanding of American political and military history and of the American political structure he would automatically become an effective citizen.

As the individual's life was enriched by the contributions of a closely organized economic world which brought him comforts from all the ends of the earth and luxuries created by industrial science, his appreciation of the complex organization grew poorer and more vague. As his small tasks and his actions affected more and more people and gained significance across the world, he felt more and more circumscribed and less responsible. For the increasing scale and greater specialization made his own part smaller and less rounded; he found it harder to realize his personal importance as the effects became more remote. He found it increasingly difficult to take pride in his position. The intricate organization with its accent on the impersonal and the institutional made the meaning of life more difficult to grasp and gave the individual a sense of helplessness in a vast world. To understand his own part, he needed an understanding

of the whole impersonal, integrated, specialized, and institutional society. This required extended conceptualization, and for its development his experiential opportunities were constantly becoming more limited.

This situation inevitably created a great challenge for social education. Not only have political and economic problems become more critical, but the growing inco-ordination between the technological nature of our culture and the corresponding institutional controls actually seems to threaten the continued existence of our democratic ideals. Full realization of individual potentialities, effective social participation, and the utilization of intelligence become difficult in a culture characterized by widespread unemployment, individual insecurity, and group conflict.

The task of civic education to-day cannot, then be conceived in the simple terms of a century ago. The seeming chasm between the adolescent and the social whole, the complex nature of society, the maladjustments which produce misunderstanding of, or a cynical indifference to, the characteristics of our culture constitute a grave problem for social studies teachers. The duty of meeting the needs of adolescents in the area of social-civic relations is both complex and essential. In the days ahead the maintenance and fulfillment of democratic ideals in social-civic, as in other basic relationships, depend more than ever before upon the ability of American teachers to guide the youth in our schools in meeting their needs so as to develop the desirable characteristics of behavior required for effective participation in our evolving culture.

The problem of adolescent needs in the social-civic area is, then, no less important than difficult. The facts that the adolescent frequently lacks sensitivity and insight into these relationships, that his apparent separation as an individual from the wider social complex, that the satisfaction of his needs here are of great general significance—these make the detection and satisfaction of social-civic needs a challenging task.

Certain general needs are, however, readily discovered. These are:

1. *The need for responsible participation in socially significant activities, and*
2. *The need for social recognition.*

The satisfaction of these two needs is greatly hampered in our culture to-day by the apparent hiatus between the individual and the impersonal, institutional social-civic activities. Cultural development has made the way of the adolescent steadily more difficult.

To-day specialization and the urbanization of American life has greatly limited youth's opportunities for early and wholesome participation in responsible community activities. As Dr. Caroline Zachry has said: "Current social and economic stress not only keeps adolescents from getting jobs, marrying when they are in love, and participating purposefully

in social undertakings. More profoundly, it keeps them from achieving the symbols of the adulthood toward which they strive." Adolescents are thus frustrated, in their drive for participation and recognition, by the very nature of our culture. They seek to marry and are told to wait until they can get jobs; they seek to get jobs and they are told that society has none for them; they seek to attack the complex problems of such a society and they are told to wait until they are mature. Without status in the eyes of the adult world they are immediately subject to feelings of uncertainty and frustration.

This frustration and failure may produce sullen acceptance or despair. It is essential to our democracy that it should not. Somehow these needs of adolescents must be adequately satisfied. As Dr. Zachry says:

"If these young people are to learn to participate in a democratic society, a recognized place must be found for them—a status on the basis of which they will be able to find themselves as adolescents and grow into adults competent to deal with the problems of social reconstruction. Adjustment on the basis of conformity will not suffice. Through participation as adolescents, with a rightful place in the scheme of dynamic society, they must learn to deal with social change and to direct it toward the realization of their own now thwarted aspirations."

In our culture the secondary school is the agency to which the task of meeting the needs of adolescents has been delegated by the family and the state. Within the school, the main responsibility for social-civic education has, in turn, been delegated to the social studies teacher. Hence, it becomes a particular task of the social studies teacher to guide youth in securing responsible participant experiences in significant social activities and in gaining social recognition thereby.

The conception of civic education to-day, as has already been indicated, places a heavy responsibility upon social studies teachers. As our culture increases its reliance on specialization and technology, changes more rapidly, and becomes a more heterogeneous, complex, and impersonal, the difficulty of establishing social participation through face-to-face relationships becomes ever greater. More reliance necessarily must be placed upon information indirectly obtained from newspapers, magazines, and the radio; upon action through mass organizations; and upon control by means of institutional processes. If the individual is to retain his identity, he must be able to test that information, to influence that action, and to share in that control. To guide adolescents in meeting their needs in social-civic relationships is a many-sided task.

In the accomplishment of that task, nothing less than democracy itself is at stake. The social studies teacher should realize, therefore, that certain ends must be attained and that the social studies offer resources for attaining them.

Social studies teachers should, therefore, in order to guide adolescents effectively in meeting their needs for social participation and social recognition, help those adolescents to develop: (1) a pattern of social-civic loyalties; (2) an understanding of social continuity, social change, and the social implications of modern science, as well as of propaganda symbolism, and mass organization as agencies of social control; and (3) the ability to select effective leaders and to evaluate competence in leadership and also the ability to act as effective leaders themselves whenever by so doing they may further social-civic welfare.

For developing these things the social studies provide rich resources, and through the use of those resources social studies teachers may contribute to the social-civic effectiveness of adolescents and to democracy itself.

Loyalty represents an emotional attachment to a person, group, institution, or ideal. It contains elements of rationality which can be consciously increased; in its essence, however, it is highly charged with emotion. In this respect and in others as well it is closely related to identification. As a matter of fact, loyalty and identification are often inseparable; they may simply represent different ways of looking at the same thing. An individual tends to be loyal to the person, group, or ideal with which he feels identified; at the same time loyal feelings of attachment often lead to identification.

Insecurity and conflict in modern life make the question of developing loyalties crucial. Our culture to-day has no generally accepted pattern of loyalty to which everyone naturally adheres. The loyalties to the values of the past have been weakened by the advances of science, by the rapidity of change, and by the stresses and strains of modern life. The heterogeneity of our culture fail to develop a pattern of loyalty, but the family itself has an uncertain role in this regard. Adolescents find their parents troubled by the same loyalty conflicts that confuse them. This lack of definite loyalty patterns produces greater insecurity, and, yet, if intelligently handled, it has the possibility of producing the flexibility and relativity of attitudes and standards demanded for wholesome living in a rapidly changing culture.

The adolescent has normally already developed a rather definite pattern of loyalties, for such development begins in immediate-personal social relationships. In the home, the school, and the community loyalties to members of the family, teachers, and friends have been fashioned. Such patterns are more or less positively set when adolescence begins. The adolescent is ready to expand and refine these loyalties through increasing identification with the efforts, failures, and accomplishments of other human beings. He wants to break his dependence on family ties and satisfy his need for responsible participation in socially significant activities and

his need for social recognition. He is ready to broaden his loyalties into the wider relationships of social-civic and economic life.

It is the task of the social studies teacher to aid adolescents in meeting this problem of broadening their loyalties. He must constantly recognize the fact that loyalties grow out of personal experiences and should work with adolescents in their relationships in the school and the community. For the welfare of the individual and of democracy, those loyalties should be broadened in the area of social-civic relationships in harmony with democratic ideals.

There is, to be sure, no particular problem of getting the adolescent to be loyal to someone or something. His association in the gang and clique, his crushes on older people, his idealism and interest in value standards all contribute to his feeling of loyalty for individuals and small groups. As he broadens this feeling to include wider groups, he should come to understand, however, that loyalty does not mean complete self-abnegation, but, on the contrary, implies the maintenance and assertion of wholesome individuality in group relationships. This wholesome individuality should be expressed through a critically constructive attitude toward the development of loyalties. The adolescent should ask himself, "Will my loyalty to this individual, this group, or this idea best enable me to further the democratic values of life?"

No narrow term can be set to this dynamic expansion. The extension of loyalties into the institutional area of social-civic life requires a large degree of conceptualization. For example in extending into the national area the personal loyalties which bind the adolescent to home, school, and community the adolescent must depend largely upon abstract ideas, concepts, and symbols. It is relatively easy to bridge this gap by relying heavily upon slogans, heroes, and such emotional symbols as the flag, but it is more difficult to direct the adolescent's experience so that he comes to see "the nation," "his nation," in a way that leads to an appreciation of "other nations." Nevertheless, a national loyalty which does not lead to international loyalties is hardly in harmony with the democratic ideal. A democratic nationalism should free the individual for more effective activities within the nation and for richer friendships and relationships with people in other nations. A sound nationalism will be consistent with—will, indeed, stimulate the growth of—broader loyalties.

International loyalties are, indeed, constantly increasing in importance because of the growing interdependence of the world. The various nations have steadily become more economically, politically, and culturally intertwined. Specialization and improvements in transportation and communication have woven about the world an intricate web of interlocking contacts and dependencies. Activities in England, France, Japan, Russia, Germany, Italy, and other nations have profound effects upon people in

the United States. Our standard of living and our personal security are dependent to a large degree upon the maintenance of satisfactory international relations. We must therefore be interested in events and policies in foreign nations; we must reach tentative judgments as to the ultimate effects of movements in those nations. Hence, narrow localism, provincialism, and nationalism should be broken down and an identification with all humanity established. This does not mean that loyalty to home, community, state, and nation should be contravened, but it does mean that loyalty to human beings everywhere should be added thereto.

The establishment of loyalty to, and identification with, humanity demands even greater conceptualization than the establishment of national loyalty. Increasing understanding and appreciation of the cultures of other peoples is necessary. This understanding and appreciation may be based not only upon a recognition of the contribution of other cultures to world civilization, but also upon an understanding of the ways in which those cultures hang together internally and so form a pattern. Adolescents should understand that ways of living are functions of a complex of forces including the geographic environment, the cultural heritage, and the biological vitality of man. Thus, ways of living of other peoples that may seem strange or even distasteful to us are logical and perfectly understandable when the total pattern of their culture is considered. A comparison of cultures, as wholes, also brings out the common elements and so contributes to a sense of common humanity.

Because loyalty to one's own race often seems to conflict with loyalty to all humanity, social studies teachers should seek to clarify the concepts related to race. Ethnologists have exploded the concept of the pure race. All racial groups in the world at the present time are mixed by intermarriage over thousands of years. Investigations have demonstrated that, whatever differences there may be between contemporary racial groups, the effects of racial difference upon cultural life are illusory. As Franz Boas has said, "It does not matter from which point of view we consider culture, its forms are not dependent upon race." And again, "The idea of the great blond Aryan, the leader of mankind, is the result of self-admiration that emotional thinkers have tried to sustain by imaginative reasoning. It has no foundation in observed fact."

Since the development of a loyalty to humanity is essential to the democratic ideal, it follows that activities related to establishing identification and loyalties with all peoples in the world should be continued and broadened. In this area teachers of social studies, science, foreign language, English and other subjects can coöperate effectively. The reading of outstanding biographies, novels, plays, and poems; the investigation of current national and international issues; and the constant contacts between individuals in broader social-civic relationships in the school and community

offer many opportunities for furthering a wholesome feeling of loyalty.

This loyalty should be based not only upon the common problems and common aspirations of the various peoples of the world, but also upon their necessary differences. Just as in a single democracy the potentialities of the individual are essentially unique, so in the world the contributions of a people should be unique. Social studies teachers should guide adolescents in recognizing that this heterogeneity is a necessary and desirable condition of American and world culture in the years to come. Heterogeneity based on different national backgrounds in America, sectionalism, multisectarianism, racial differences, increasing population mobility, and improvements in transportation and communication may be regarded as an advantage rather than a liability. Not only can the various cultures of the world become instruments in the orchestration of an emergent world civilization but also contacts with them offer individuals opportunities for fuller and richer living through varied experiences in a varied world. The fact that this opportunity is not being utilized to any large extent is a problem of concern for all thinking people and especially for social studies teachers.

In the United States, loyalty to wider social groups should rest upon the foundation of democratic values. These values give meaning to the aspirations and struggles of mankind and offer guidance and hope for the future. Edmund Day says:

“The youth of the nation should be made familiar with the heroic efforts through which individual freedom, after centuries of struggle, was finally achieved. They should be made to appreciate the incalculable values which individual freedom brings to human aspirations and achievement. They should be made to see that resort to force as a mode of social adjustment is a negation of the principles on which American ways of life are based. . . . They should be led to work for it, to devote themselves to it.”

Loyalty is always based on some pattern of values. The acceptance of these values has a negative as well as a positive side. In the United States rejection of loyalties contrary to the fundamental principles of democracy should be encouraged. The adolescent should not base his loyalty to his nation on such a slogan as, “My country, right or wrong!” On the contrary he should appreciate the responsibility of the individual to oppose vigorously and courageously ideas, ideals, or actions which seem contrary to his personal philosophy—a philosophy which, the Committee hopes, will be based on the democratic way of life. This rejection of hostile values should operate also in international loyalties. The adolescent may come to appreciate the accomplishments of the Germans, the Japanese, and other peoples; at the same time he must, if he is to maintain his personal integrity and contribute to democratic ideals, reserve the right to criticize and

oppose the acts of these and other peoples, past and present, when those acts seem to conflict with the ideals he holds dear.

In his narrower loyalties the adolescent must also learn to criticize and to reject some principles and affiliations. His loyalties are often in conflict: loyalties to his gang may clash with loyalty to his school as a whole; loyalty to his local community, intensified perhaps by competitive athletics, may threaten the formation of wider loyalties; loyalty to his social-economic group may not be consonant with his democratic ideals; loyalty to a hero, crush, or the girl he loves may not jibe with strongly held social-civic opinions. Such conflict often causes serious maladjustments. Sometimes rejection of older loyalties in more immediate personal-social relations is necessary for the formation of new loyalties in social-civic relationships. Choice among loyalties is inescapable.

The social studies teacher should therefore aid the adolescent, not only in understanding and assuming loyalties to groups, the nation, and humanity, but also in setting up criteria for choice among his loyalties. The adolescent in his choice should develop critical opposition that is constructive rather than destructive. Since criticism operates in the social studies classroom, the teacher can help adolescents to distinguish between criticism that leads to improvement and the sort that is solely condemnatory. The teacher can guide adolescents to resolve their conflicting loyalties by the development of criteria which will establish consistency and integrity in the personal life of the individual adolescent and will aid in the building of a satisfying personal philosophy in harmony with democratic ideals. In terms of that philosophy all loyalties can be expanded and refined.

A large part of the research of social scientists has been in the area of social-civic relations. Historians, political scientists, sociologists, social-psychologists, anthropologists, economists, and others have in recent years added greatly to our understanding of this area. The best results achieved by these social scientists should be utilized by social studies teachers in aiding adolescents to develop basic understandings essential for meeting their social-civic needs.

1. *Understanding Social Continuity and Social Change.*

In a complex, dynamic society change is frequent and its effects widespread. There is a consequent tendency to increase the use of social controls. If these controls are to be wisely chosen and wisely employed in social planning, and if the individual is not to be reduced to a mere cog in the machine, an extended understanding of social organization and social development is necessary. This understanding of the principles of social organization and social change involves the discovery of information concerning such questions as: What causes social change? Why is social change more rapid in certain periods of history than in others? Why do some parts of a culture change more rapidly than others? What produces

social maladjustment? What are the possibilities for intelligently controlling social change through the utilization of social planning?

The various social scientists have as their task the collection and interpretation of data related to these and other equally significant questions. Some of their currently accepted conclusions are:

- (1) Social change is continuous. Each social change has both causes and effects. This principle, often called the law of historical continuity, may be illustrated by the spread of printing in Western Europe. The "revival of learning" and the religious controversy of the Reformation encouraged the rapidity with which printing presses, after Gutenberg's invention, multiplied in Germany, France, Italy, and Great Britain. The spread of printing, in turn, made possible the expansion of education to the lower classes and loosed a whole series of forces that profoundly altered social living.
- (2) Social changes normally result from invention within the culture and borrowing from other cultures.
- (3) Rapidity of social change is determined by the nature and extent of inventions already made and by the opportunities for contacts with other cultures. Each invention, while resulting from the creative activity of an individual or groups of individuals, rests upon previous inventions already extant in the culture. Thus it was impossible to invent the airplane until a powerful light-weight engine was available; modern radio broadcasting and receiving were impossible before the vacuum tube was devised. Furthermore, once the internal combustion engine and the vacuum tube were invented, they became the basis for whole clusters of inventions besides the airplane and radio. Thus the rate of cultural change increases in tempo as inventions accumulate. Increasing contact between cultures encourages the borrowing of old inventions and stimulates the production of new inventions. The more widespread the contacts between cultures, the more volatile cultural change is likely to be.
- (4) Some parts of an otherwise rapidly changing culture and some entire cultures change slowly because of survivals, isolation, cultural differences, vested interests, the power of tradition, habits, social pressures for conformity, the tendency to ignore the worse and glorify the better aspects of the past, and the heterogeneity of cultural needs and interests. Thus fire-hazardous and flimsy thatched roofs, common in England because wood was lacking, appeared and persisted long in New England, where a better material, wood was plentiful. Long after the usefulness of the medieval guild in protecting craftsmen and merchants and in

maintaining the quality standards for goods had passed into limbo, the guild continued and acted as a check on new inventions. Similarly, the ideals of "rugged individualism" hold over into a specialized and interdependent American culture long after the agricultural frontier has disappeared.

- (5) Culture persists because it has utility. Some aspects of culture continue by transference of value (bows and arrows become toys and archery a sport) and some aspects survive because of multiple values (the family).
- (6) Social strains, tensions, and maladjustments are produced when different parts of a culture change at disproportionate rates of speed. These maladjustments become more critical in periods of rapid change.
- (7) Problems develop at points of strain caused by social lags. A social lag covers the period of time elapsing between the emergence of a social need and the widespread establishment of provisions for its satisfaction. Thus the general use of the truck as a means of transporting freight causes a social need to emerge in the area of railroad transportation; a lag exists until provisions to meet that need are made by the managers of the railroads, the Interstate Commerce Commission, Congress, and other responsible agents. Social lags produce strains; these strains produce problems; e. g., losses to bond- and stockholders, inefficiency in railway transportation, and depression in heavy industries manufacturing railroad equipment.
- (8) Cultural lags are caused by scarcity of compensating invention in social arrangements, conflicting interests, lack of accurate social information, the power of social inertia, and the failure of education.
- (9) The elimination of social lags is complicated in a specialized interdependent culture by the need for planning and centralized responsibility. If such planning and responsibility are lacking, the relief of a specific lag or a whole pattern of lags may be delayed because that relief may not be the responsibility of any individual or group with a sensitivity to the public interest. In an effort to remedy this situation many nations have developed large-scale plans of social control designed to direct social change intelligently and in coördination with technological changes. Yet this centralized planning immediately raises the problem of the relation of the individual to the state, a problem fundamental in a democracy. While many nations—Russia, Germany, Japan, and Italy—seem to have achieved success in reducing unemployment and increasing production by large-scale plans, there has

been an accompanying loss of civil liberties. Furthermore, in Germany, Italy, and Japan, unemployment has been reduced through the production of armaments used to destroy the peace of the world; these nations have glorified war as an instrument of social policy and national aggrandizement. While it seems inevitable that the people of the United States must accept increased public planning and social control, eternal vigilance must be exercised if civil liberties are to be maintained and peace preserved.

- (10) The opportunities for planning in contemporary culture can be properly appraised only on the basis of insight into the role of science and invention in our culture and the anticipation of probable future trends.
- (11) The intelligent control of change depends, in the final analysis, on forces which operate not in the abstract culture itself but rather as creative and active agents in individuals. This fact constitutes a challenge to social studies teachers. To meet that challenge, the needs of adolescents in social-civic relationships must be satisfied in ways that will enable them to become more sensitive, creative, and responsible citizens.

These generalizations are based on contributions from all the social sciences: anthropology, history, geography, sociology, and economics all offer data relating to an understanding of social change. The social studies teacher should guide adolescents into the uses of this material. But the task is not ended there, for these data should be supplemented by an investigation of social change and attempts at social control in the school, the local community, and state. Reports of local, state, and national research and planning agencies should be utilized. Such private research groups as the Brookings Institution, the American Academy of Political and Social Science, and many others also have many excellent reports on this problem. Attempts at social planning and control in England, Italy, Russia, Germany, Mexico, etc., should also be examined. The whole orbit of activities should contribute to this understanding.

2. *Understanding the Effects of Scientific Progress on Social Trends in Western Culture.*

This understanding involves the application of the principles of social continuity and social change just discussed to the evolution of our own culture. This application follows the same general pattern just used in discussing these principles but is directed specifically toward developing understandings related to Western European culture. It involves answers to such questions as: What are the motivating forces of change in Western culture? Why is Western culture changing so rapidly? What maladjust-

ments have appeared in Western culture? How can these maladjustments be corrected?

The following statements represent answers which are merely tentative and suggestive. Each adolescent should carefully examine the evolution of our culture under the guidance of the social studies teacher and attempt to reach his own conclusions concerning these basic issues. The desire of the adolescent to identify himself with broad social movements will be a strong motivating factor in such an investigation.

- (1) About four hundred years ago a powerful force began to operate in Western culture. This force was the scientific method of thinking which was produced by a belief in man's ability to solve his own problems. It relied upon both inductive and deductive thought processes and stressed the importance of open-mindedness, delayed judgment, careful research, and controlled experimentation.
- (2) The scientific method of thinking has greatly changed man's conceptions of the universe, of the earth, of social institutions, and of his own worth and importance.
- (3) As a result of its use, many additions have been made to the material base of Western culture. So great were these additions, indeed, that the commercial, agricultural, and industrial revolutions were produced. Some historians now speak of second and third industrial revolutions and of the power age.
- (4) Changes in the material culture were followed by changes in social arrangements and ideologies. Through the centuries, the local economy of the Middle Ages, the manorial village and the guild, disappeared; the modern city and modern culture appeared with the factory, the corporation, and the labor union; banks, stock markets, and other credit agencies achieved enormous importance; feudalism slowly gave way to the national state, monarchy, and democracy; the doctrines of the church concerning economic life were drastically altered; extreme government regulation gave way to free competition and *laissez-faire*, etc.
- (5) But as the material base became larger, the tempo of change increased so rapidly that great incoördination tended to develop between the relative rates of change in various phases of our culture. Since the scientific method of thought was most readily applied to physical problems, the tools and techniques of economic life changed most rapidly. The dominance of the self-sufficient farm and rural community with their large dependence on hand and muscle, and their need for rugged individuals with varied work abilities, was successfully challenged by the special-

ized, mechanized, interdependent factory system operating within an urban environment and demanding more associational activities and centralized planning. The phases of our culture more removed from physical problems, those in such areas as the government, the family, the school, and the church tended, on the one hand, to make adaptions more slowly, and in some areas the power of social inertia resisted all change.

- (6) This unequal rate of change between various phases of our culture has produced areas of lag, at which have developed points of stress and strain intensifying social maladjustments and critical problems; e. g., unemployment, crime, insecurity, divorce, etc. While some of these problems have persisted in human history, their prevalence and cruciality are characteristics of our era.
- (7) Efforts to solve these problems have brought conflicts; e. g., the struggles between individual ownership and the large corporation, between home-owned and chain stores, between trade and industrial unions, the conflict of freedom and control in agriculture and business, of localization and centralization in government, of fundamentalism and liberalism in religion, and the like.
- (8) The insecurity and conflicts which result from the strains and stresses produced by social maladjustments have a disintegrating effect upon individual personalities and produce widespread neuroses, psychoses, suicide, and war.
- (9) Many social scientists have pointed out that insecurity and conflict have created a great need in our culture to-day. Our culture urgently requires creative thinking and coöperative activity directed toward the efficient utilization of science and technology in meeting individual and group needs. Only thus can we achieve the values inherent in the American concept of the democratic way of life within the framework produced by the basic trends in our evolving culture. Creative intelligence must be applied to the solution of the critical problems and the resolving of the basic conflicts in our society. This intelligence, in a democracy, should not spring from a single individual or an elite group; rather, it should be the product of the great mass of American citizens aided and guided by the insights and abilities developed by public education.

Americans have long been proud of their increasing control over the natural environment. They have pointed with satisfaction to their large cities with towering skyscrapers, to their great dams and irrigation projects, to their thousands of miles of railways and highways, and to their bridges which span great rivers. The whole progress of Western man from

savagery to civilization in Europe and America has been in terms of greater control of the food supply, of the temperature, of distance, and of disease. Man no longer pleads with recalcitrant magical powers that he may live at all; he is now able to plan for his future.

The next great task is to prevent the tremendous social wastes of present-day society. The achievement of that task requires a better coördination between science and the controlling social arrangements and institutions. Such coördination can come only with the use of the ability to think and to choose in the social field. As long as man followed rather automatically the path laid down by a homogeneous culture, his contribution was largely anonymous and, as far as he was concerned, accidental. With heterogeneity and the mastery of scientific techniques of thought, it is possible to place one social form and one social solution beside another, to develop discrimination, and at last to have the dignity of choice in the social field. This opportunity for choice is the very essence of democracy. Social studies teachers should aid adolescents in gaining insight both into the contributions of science to our material well-being and into the need of applying the techniques of science to the solution of our social problems.

Adolescents may gain insight into the effects of scientific progress on social trends in our culture through an examination of social processes and problems in the school and community. It is important that they come to see such processes and problems as part of a whole, complex cultural pattern which is widely extended in both time and space. This will require the use of data from history and the other social sciences and an emphasis upon the importance of underlying principles and processes. The consideration of data and principles, however, cannot be effectively separated. Hence, understanding of the nature of social change in general and understanding of social change in our culture in particular should go together. Through attention to the life of their own schools and communities, as well as through an investigation of social change in our culture, adolescents will be able to gain insights into the general nature of social continuity and social change and thereby attain a group of general operating principles. Yet in order that adolescents may exercise intelligent choice in relation to social-civic participation rather than be at the mercy of the forces of controlled opinion in our culture, it is necessary that social studies teachers should guide youth in understanding such potential enemies of reason as propaganda, symbolism, and mass organization as agencies of social control.

3. *Understanding Propaganda, Symbolism, and Mass Organization as Agencies of Social Control and as Potential Enemies of Reason.*

Propaganda is the use of emotional symbols to achieve unthinking reactions in social situations. It may be intentional or unintentional, and its intentional use is to be deplored because of its encouragement of irra-

tionality. It may be true or untrue, but it is always biased in that it seeks to channel action in a predetermined direction. It may have good or bad consequences, but its use is dangerous, for propagandists often, consciously or unconsciously, achieve their ends through distorting, falsifying, and suppressing data.

Propaganda has increased in extent and effectiveness because of: the increase in social maladjustments, problems, and conflicts; the increase in scientific knowledge concerning the human organism and its reactions; improvements in such technical processes as printing, photo-engraving, and the like; the development of such mass agencies of communication as the modern newspaper and periodical, the cinema, and the radio; and increasing specialization in education which causes even the most intelligent individuals to be unable to evaluate data and ideas in many areas.

Adolescents should be brought to understand these factors causing the growth of propaganda and to analyze the means and methods propagandists use. As propaganda becomes more widely used as an agency of social manipulation and control it is essential, for intelligent social-civic relationships, that adolescents be immunized against it through being helped to understand its nature and techniques.

Some pedagogues have recommended the deliberate use of propaganda techniques in the schools as a basis for establishing essential values and loyalties. This is a most dangerous expedient, for loyalties established by propaganda can easily be distorted and changed by propaganda. While propaganda rests primarily upon emotion, education should stress reliance upon intelligence. We should therefore unequivocally oppose the adoption of propaganda methods in the schools. This does not mean, however, that education should neglect the emotional aspect of the personality. Obviously such education is impossible, because every reaction has an emotional tone. It does mean, however, that adolescents should learn to satisfy their emotionally felt needs through a rational process. It means that, whenever possible, emotion should be a force under the direction of insight and intelligence rather than a stimulus to behavior consequent upon the impact of unreasoned symbols and attitudes.

Emotionalized symbols are the basis of propaganda. Powerful individuals and pressure groups increasingly use these in controlling mass action. Such actions, signs, words, and phrases as the clenched fist, the raised arm, the hammer and sickle, "*Il Duce*," "*Der Fuehrer*," "hundred per cent Americanism," "the New Deal," and even the Church, the Home, and the Constitution are used in an effort to develop positive or negative reactions to individuals, groups, or nations. Even a cursory examination of political and economic addresses, newspaper and magazine articles, advertisements, and posters will demonstrate how widely emotionalized symbols are used as substitutes for fact and reason. By parade, mass meeting, radio,

picture, and poster, by speech, color, rhythm and form, pressures are brought to bear constantly upon the individual in an effort to achieve automatic, emotional responses to social issues and situations. Thus symbols are used to drive us to hate, to love, and even to die.

These symbols are usually employed in such way as to discourage reason and to provoke unthinking action. Therefore, it is important that adolescents learn to recognize and to appraise these catalytic agents of modern society. The use of verbal symbols, however, is essential to logic and reason. There is to-day no more important phase of social-civic education than that related to the understanding of emotionalized symbols and the ability to react to them intelligently rather than unthinkingly.

Mass Organizations. As insecurity and conflict increase in our culture, there is an increased reliance on mass organizations as a means of achieving social-civic aims. In recent years Europe has witnessed the rise of the communist, the fascist, and the Nazi movements. In our country business, labor, the farmer, the veterans, and many other groups have organized on a mass basis. Especially during the depression of 1929-1933 was this trend pronounced. In a short period of time Huey Long, Father Coughlin and Doctor Townsend were able to attract thousands of followers held together largely through propaganda techniques utilizing emotionalized symbols. Increasingly, mass organizations are used in the effort to achieve economic, political, and cultural aims. Powerful lobbies exert great influence on local, state, and national governments; national business and labor organizations often wage bitter warfare; patriotic pressure groups seek to control civic education; and movements are organized to dominate, if possible, almost every phase of social-civic life. It is important that adolescents should understand and should be able to evaluate intelligently these mass organizations which seek to wield such tremendous power in social-civic relationships.

The evaluation of mass organizations is of crucial importance to social-civic participation because of the interdependent, centralized, and impersonal nature of our culture, which, as a matter of fact, requires mass organization for effective social action. Hence, adolescents should analyze various types of organizations and should participate directly in those which are furthering through the employment of proper methods, purposes that are deemed desirable.

C. *Resources for Developing Ability to Select, Evaluate, and Serve as Social-Civic Leaders.*

The importance of social organization and the needs of the adolescent together focus major attention upon the problem of leadership. The success of social organization is determined by the creative and coöperative ability of the members of the group and by the democracy, unselfishness, and effectiveness of those chosen to assume leadership and to act as repre-

sentatives. The needs of the adolescent for social participation and for recognition of his own worth stimulate intense interest in leadership: in his relationships with his own and the opposite sex he desires to prove his worth by the ability to lead in various situations and to choose others who will prove effective leaders. But in our rapidly changing, interdependent, and specialized culture, the development of the ability to lead and the wise choice of leaders become increasingly difficult. As social life becomes more complex, the area appropriate for direct decision narrows and greater reliance must be placed on trained experts. Hence there is an increasing necessity for training in the use of intelligence in the selection of leaders.

The development of ability to lead should have more flexible results than is common at present, and that flexibility can be attained only through the training of adolescents in direct participation in leadership.

Leaders should be selected in relation to qualities required for success in carrying out the enterprise for which leadership is needed. After broad policies and forms of organization are determined, criteria should be set up for successful leadership in carrying them out. Adolescents in social studies classes should, therefore, have opportunities for both selecting and being leaders in various types of social-civic enterprises. There has been in the school too great a tendency for the same individual to assume leadership in all situations. This is a dangerous policy for a democracy, for democracy requires the development of a pattern of leadership. The same individual should be a leader at one time and a follower at another as determined by his unique potentialities for contributions to group welfare. Social studies classes should be set up in such a way as to promote practice in such a pattern of leadership. Each individual should be encouraged to use his talents in group leadership when the situation is such as to require his special contribution.

Effective social-civic participation also requires individuals in our culture to have adequate techniques for evaluating the success of leadership. Democracy requires a periodic accounting by leaders of progress made. Adolescents should, therefore, have opportunities for practice in evaluating the success of leaders in group enterprises. This practice can be provided in social studies classes by a critical and sympathetic appraisal of leaders within the school. Moreover, direct attention can be given to the appraisal of the success of historical and contemporary leaders in the community, state, nation, and world. Appraisals of local leadership in small communities may also be made with, of course, care and tact. Always it must be remembered also that evaluating of all leaders should not be on the basis of emotional reaction to charm or eloquence but rather on analysis of their individual capabilities and their value for the attainment of democratic ideals.

The need of adolescents for responsible participation and social recog-

nition of their success in such activities can be best satisfied only through social participation itself. A framework of loyalties, and values, a large degree of conceptualization related to our evolving culture, and many basic social abilities and techniques are required, but all these may be most effectively developed through social participation. Hence responsible sharing in socially significant activities in the crux of social-civic education. Educative individual and group activities can well be centered around problems which are socially significant and which at the same time have direct concern for the adolescent. Such activities meet the basic needs of adolescents in this area and contribute to developing the desirable characteristics of behavior necessary to the achievement of democratic values.

The problem of the social studies teacher in the area of social-civic relationships is to provide opportunities for maximum participation in socially significant activities and to see that proper recognition for such activity is given and received. Social participation in the area of social-civic relationships should be in terms of common interests and purposes; it should be directed toward achievements of concern to the adolescents who are involved.

A. *Utilizing Community Resources*

The adolescent's need for socially significant participation is greatly hampered by conditions in our culture. Youth no longer gradually shares more and more in the activities of the wider community as a normal part of his growth in maturity. It is imperative in our culture, therefore, that educational statesmanship should devise techniques for student participation in socially significant activities. Adolescents need socially significant participation and social recognition; democratic communities need the creative thought and coöperative activities of youth in overcoming current social-civic maladjustments. As Paul Hanna says: "To coördinate these two mighty resources—to harness the energy of youth to the task of progressively improving conditions of community life—that is the supreme challenge to educational and social statesmanship."

One of the most fertile areas of social participation of the student is the local community, whether it is a small rural village or a great metropolis. The family, the school, and the adolescent are all inevitably involved in the social-civic relations of that community. Any concerns and tensions which adolescents have concerning broader social-civic relations usually take their frame of reference from social-civic conditions in the local community. Hence, the community offers one of the most fruitful means of developing social-civic competence through the meeting of adolescent needs. The concerns of adolescents in relation to the social conditions in their community may be used as a point of departure from which to expand, deepen, and enrich social-civic concerns related to the major problems of the state, nation, and world. Most social-civic inquiries can, indeed,

begin with a consideration of the situation in the local community, then broaden to a consideration of the problem in the expanding community, state, nation, and world, and, finally, return to apply the results of the inquiry to conditions in the local community with an eye toward improving those conditions.

The study of the community also offers excellent opportunities for that conceptualization of social-civic processes which is so essential to effective social participation in the larger culture. Such phenomena as unemployment, banking, taxation, exchange, sanitation, and the like can best be comprehended through direct experience. The best point of departure for the understanding of both historical and contemporary social, economic, political, and cultural life is through observation of, and participation in, community activities. In these activities the adolescent is already deeply involved; he sees mirrored in them all his greatest concerns regarding work, marriage, achievement, and recognition; and they offer him an opportunity to try his hand and to prove his worth to parents, friends, and rivals. Through these involvements and concerns, the adolescent can be guided to his social-civic needs in ways which will promote the growth of desirable characteristics of behavior.

B. *Bridging the Gap Between Social-Civic Relationships in Local Community, and in State, Region, Nation, and World.*

The experience of the adolescent in social-civic relationships should not be confined to the community alone. Our culture is so inextricably interdependent that the social life of the community itself can be understood only in relationship to its involvements in a cultural web whose strands encompass a world complex. Besides the connection of the local community, there is another good reason for avoiding attention to the geographical locality to the exclusion of the wider society. With increasing mobility of population and consequently enhanced cultural contacts, the chances are that the majority of adolescents in any community will make their way as adults to places far removed from the locale of their youth. The adolescent of to-day will in the future make decisions which will inevitably affect people in all parts of the world; the decisions of people in other parts of the world will have tremendous effects upon the lives of adolescents; hence, youth should have insights into nature of the world culture which is emerging as a result of the expansion of the industrial revolution from its original centers in Europe and America to far-flung peripheries in all corners of the globe.

Nor should the insights of the adolescent be confined to the contemporary scene. Culture is never static, even during periods of slowest change; culture is always dynamic, in a process of continuous change through the interaction of human beings with their environment. The present is the most transitory factor in the process of living. Individuals

bring to any present situation not only their own life history, but also the life history of their culture insofar as they are a part of it. All individuals also act to some extent in relation to a future which they strive to anticipate and to influence. Hence, both human beings and the culture of which they are a part are in a process of continuous change flowing from a partially known past to a largely unknown future. In meeting the problems of the present and endeavoring to improve the living conditions of the present and the future, the intelligent individual must utilize, as much as he can, the past experiences of mankind. As has been said: "History is to the race what memory is to the individual." Hence in guiding adolescents to meet their needs in social-civic relationships, the social studies teacher should provide opportunities for them to utilize the richest experiences of mankind as they relate to the problems of the present and future. Adolescents should gain insights into the nature of *our evolving culture*—its past, its present, and its probable future trends. These insights must, however, have direct application to activities which adolescents themselves deem important, for in no other way can data and ideas have true meaning for the adolescent.

In guiding the adolescent to gain experiences related to the expanding community, state, region, and nation both direct and vicarious materials should be used. Such problems may be investigated as: How is my community related to other communities? How has the interdependence of my community with other communities increased in recent years? What have been the factors contributing to increased interdependence? What advantages have emerged from increased interdependence? What disadvantages? What does my community contribute to the state, nation, and world in social-civic relationships? What do other parts of the state, nation, and world contribute to the well-being of the people in my community? How do my social-civic activities affect state, national, and world conditions? How do the social-civic activities of people in other places affect my well-being?

In investigating the expanding community, state, nation, and world, all types of materials should be utilized, including: people; excursions; the radio; cinema; periodicals; newspapers; reports of social-civic investigations; data from economics, political science, sociology, anthropology, geography, history, and the like; pamphlets; books of all types; atlases; statistical abstracts; etc. In order to meet needs in social-civic relationships, however, it is advisable always to begin with conditions in the local community or area with which the group are familiar and to expand from those as points of departure. Furthermore, while broader implications and backgrounds are being explored, it is important that continuous consideration be given to the meaning of the wider insight gained for the on-going life of the adolescent in his immediate environment.

I now wish to indicate how social studies teachers can guide the experiences of adolescents in meeting their social-civic needs so that an appreciation and understanding of democracy as it has traditionally operated and is now operating in American culture is likely to emerge. This appreciation and understanding applies of course to all areas of basic relationships, but it is particularly pertinent to the social-civic area because democracy first emerged in America as a socio-political conception and has more recently been formulated as an ideal in more personal relations and in economic life. The study of it as a concept is naturally a part of the social-civic area, and that area has rich resources related to understanding and appreciating democracy both as a framework of values and as a method of group action. Though the basic democratic documents of the world are largely political and the finest expressions of democratic principles have usually been enunciated for political purposes, it is apparent that, as political activity becomes more closely interwoven with economic and social activity and as the American people struggle to extend the democratic conception to all areas of life, there is an increasing necessity for adolescents to form all their social-civic loyalties and relationships in harmony with democratic values.

Democratic values can be developed best through direct participation in experiences in the school and community where real problems may be met and democratically solved. Nevertheless, in furthering the development of concepts which will lead to understanding broader applications of democratic values, data from American and world history will be helpful. The use of these data, to be effective, must be directly focused upon the development and application of democratic values and ideals in the United States and other nations of the world. Adolescents should develop a reasoned conviction of the desirability of democracy and should master techniques for making democracy function effectively under the conditions of contemporary cultural realities.

As has been indicated earlier democracy involves these irreducible elements:

- (1) A respect for the individual as of unique worth and as possessing potentialities to which no absolute limits can be assigned; as Thomas Mann has said, "We must define democracy as that form of government and of society which is inspired above every other with the feeling and consciousness of the dignity of man."
- (2) Acceptance of the fact that we are all inescapably related to and affected by other individuals; that man is a social animal; and
- (3) A belief in reasonable procedures as the only proper and

workable way of getting along together, of resolving internal difficulties, and for promoting the general welfare.

These elements imply a rich congeries of values which have significance for social-civic relations. Every adolescent should have opportunities to define these values through direct participation in democratic living and through a careful investigation of the historical development of the democratic ideal.

Democratic values should aid the adolescent in developing a conception of his function and purpose in relation to the social-civic activities in America. One of the most pressing challenges to American education is the necessity of guiding adolescents in developing a philosophy under which they can feel that they are needed; that they have a part to play. European nations are able to present to their post-war generations pictures of national honor and a fatherland threatened from without. To offer our youth the narrow nationalism of these European nations would be incompatible with democratic ideals. Our youth, however, can be offered the much greater opportunity of sharing in the on-going effort to work out despite contemporary difficulties, the experiment of democratic living which was begun with the colonization of America.

The present generation must cope with the problems resulting from the speed, the lack of planning, and the extraordinary contradictions and contrasts of our development. Our generation has the opportunity to shape our future history, to decide whether America with her unique geographical position and wealth of resources and with her common language and a beginning of common understandings is to become a society which masters technological change instead of being mastered by it.

The very continuance of any measure of progress rests upon the ability of generations living and to come. This situation is especially challenging in America at the present time when, as Charles A. Beard says, "The people of this country are engaged in no mere political experiment, as often imagined, but are attempting to build a civilization in a new natural setting, along original lines, with science and machinery as their great instrumentalities of work."

A. *The Organization of an Inquiry Directed Toward An Understanding and Appreciation of the Role of Democracy in Social-Civic Relations.*

The techniques involved in developing an understanding and appreciation of American democracy may be illustrated by an investigation of the question, "What is the nature of American democracy?"

This investigation might be carried forward by a group of adolescents in a course in American history, civics, or problems of American

democracy. The problem might be raised in the class with reference to problems in class relationships, student government in the school, a strike in the local community, some problem in national government, e.g., the attempt to change the structure of the Supreme Court or to reorganize the executive branch of the government, or it might arise from some situation in Europe such as the Munich conference or the war in Spain.

When the class group feels the need for investigating such a problem, the first step is to discuss evidences of the problem in the immediate situation. In the case of the investigation of democracy, one might begin by analyzing evidences of the presence or absence of democracy in the school and local community. As the group begins to get a conception of the nature of the problem some analysis should be made of the salient aspects of the larger problem which are important for the group to consider. For example, in investigating the nature of democracy it might be decided by the group to pursue such questions as:

- (1) What *is* democracy? Why is an understanding of its meaning important?
- (2) What are some evidences of democratic processes and living in the school? Community? State? Nation? World?
- (3) How did democracy become established in the modern world? How did science contribute to the development of democracy? How did capitalism contribute to the development of democracy? What is the concept of natural law? The social contract? The rights of man?
- (4) What contributions did the revolutions in England, America, France and other countries in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries contribute to the development of democracy?
- (5) What outstanding statesmen and political theorists have contributed to the development of the democratic conception of life? How did they do so?
- (6) What have been the crucial documents contributing to the development of democracy? How did they do so?
- (7) What artists, poets, architects, musicians, essayists, novelists, philosophers, and others have contributed to the development of democracy? How?
- (8) How has the conception of democracy changed during the past two hundred years? To what factors may these changes be attributed?
- (9) What attacks have been made on democracy in recent years? What competing conceptions of democracy are there in America and in the world to-day. Compare the conceptions of the democracy of the Republican Party, the Communist Party, the

Socialist Party, the Democratic Party, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and the labor unions. How have such individuals as George W. Norris, Woodrow Wilson, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Alfred M. Landon, Glenn Frank, Huey Long, Walter Lippmann, Father Coughlin, and Dr. Francis E. Townsend interpreted democracy?

- (10) What are the essential ideals of democracy as a process of government? As a way of life?
- (11) How does democracy differ from Oligarchy? Monarchy? Theocracy? Despotism? Fascism? Communism?
- (12) What can one do in order to live more democratically? How can democratic living be achieved in our school? Community? State? Nation? How can democracy best compete with the alternative systems of values with which it is struggling for dominance in the modern world?

During the progress of the inquiry such activities as the following might be utilized:

Investigating Activities:

- (1) An analysis might be made of democratic living in the school, as it applies to: relations between students and teachers; relations between individual students; and student participation in school activities, such as government, social activities, sports, and the like.
- (2) An analysis might be made of democratic activities in the community, in the state, and in the nation, as related to: social organizations; making a living; recreation; justice; interracial relations; government; and the like.
- (3) Excursions might be made to the city council, the jail, the courtroom, the polls, political meetings, and the like.
- (4) Interviews might be obtained with public officials, laborers, people of different races, politicians, and the like.
- (5) Political leaders, club leaders, business leaders, labor leaders, and the like might be brought into the classroom for speeches and discussion.
- (6) Political platforms, speeches, court records, public documents, etc., might be analyzed.
- (7) The radio might be used for listening to speeches of political leaders, certain Congressional activities, speeches of business and labor leaders, and to such programs as the Town Meeting of the Air, the University of Chicago Round Table, etc.
- (8) Newspaper reports of various types of activities might be utilized. Magazine articles may often prove helpful.
- (9) Statistics related to voting, distribution of purchasing power,

racial groups, and the like might be analyzed to check political participation, economic opportunity, etc.

- (10) Books of all types, encyclopedia articles, and pamphlets should be read and analyzed.

Culminating Activities:

- (1) Conclusions related to the meaning of democracy might be creatively expressed in pictures, cartoons, poems, essays, short stories, plays, music, etc.
- (2) Panel and round table discussions, debates, and oral reports might be held in the classroom and in school assembly.
- (3) Speakers might go before young people's groups, women's clubs, service clubs, and the like and present their conclusions.
- (4) Articles might be written for the school paper, local papers, and periodicals.
- (5) Letters might be written to public officials.
- (6) Interviews might be held with community leaders for purpose of discussing conclusions.
- (7) Students might participate with citizens' groups, in community forums, etc.
- (8) Recommendations related to school improvements might be presented to other classes, to the whole school in assembly, to the principal, or to the superintendent.
- (9) Committees might be appointed to make applications to school or community practices or to continue further study.

When the group feels that it has arrived at an adequate conception of democratic values and processes, the members should re-examine the immediate school and community situations in order to apply their conclusions, to make recommendations, and to carry forward activities which are designed to improve democratic living in their immediate environment.

In meeting adolescent needs for effective social participation and social recognition in social-civic relationships, care should be taken that the adolescent develops the desirable characteristics of behavior necessary in the achievement of democratic values. He should be guided in meeting his needs in social-civic relationships in such ways as to develop social sensitivity, tolerance, coöperativeness, self-direction, esthetic appreciation, creativeness, and reflective thinking.

One of the major tasks of social studies teachers in the social-civic area is to guide the adolescent in increasing his social sensitivity so that he will be: aware of and concerned about the social-civic problems of our culture; sensitive to the effects of his own social-civic actions on others; willing to act—against his own immediate interests if need be—for the welfare of others in social-civic relationships; convinced that social-

civic problems can be solved through the use of intelligence; and possessed of the tendency and ability to consider all the human values involved in social-civic activities.

Social sensitivity can be developed only by active participation in social-civic activities. There is, in our culture, too great a tendency to put the responsibility for thought and action on others. The apathy of citizens in the face of political corruption and civic responsibilities has been one of the banes of democracy. It is not enough to be sensitive to evils; one must have — and yield to — the impulse to do something intelligent to remedy them. Unwillingness to assume social-civic responsibility leads toward authoritarian forms of government. Adolescents, who are prone to accept high ideals and to desire group activity can readily be guided into seizing opportunities for social participation if the opportunity is provided. Such opportunities can be provided through a consideration of the problems of social living in the home, school, and local community. Informal social relationships in the school provide excellent opportunities for developing social sensitivity and for taking intelligent social action. In the study of civilizations and broader social problems the extended effects of individual activity can be traced.

Experiences in social-civic relationships should also be guided in ways that will promote political, economic, racial, and religious tolerance. The study of the local community, of social-civic problems, and of the cultures of other peoples will enable adolescents to enter sympathetically into the lives of others and to appreciate their beliefs, activities, and points of view. Intolerance is based upon ignorance, bigotry, and selfishness; it can be changed into tolerance through understanding and the development of social sensitivity. It should be recognized, however, that tolerance of the ways and beliefs of others does not imply lack of effective convictions with respect to the behavior and beliefs suitable to one's self in one's own situation.

Team work should be stressed in the social-civic as in other areas so as to promote coöperativeness. Coöperativeness develops when people have opportunities to participate successfully with others in the carrying out of common projects and in the achievement of common purposes and values. Of course, activities should be so guided as to promote the maximum self-direction on the part of individuals and groups. In the pursuit of inquiries related to social-civic relationships, adolescents should have opportunities self-dependently to locate information, execute activities, and take responsibility for results.

The use of reflective thinking is a desirable characteristic of behavior that should be particularly stressed in the social-civic area. The use of reflective thinking has been emphasized in progressive mathematics and science instruction. This is commendable; there is, however, an even

greater need for the use of reflective thinking with regard to social-civic relationships. We are becoming habituated to the application of reflective thought to the problems of our physical environment while still relying upon traditional, prejudiced, and unreasoned emotional responses in social relationships. This has been one of the main reasons for the increases in social lag and for the consequent intensification of social maladjustment. Hence, it is vital that adolescents learn to learn reflective thinking in attacking social-civic problems.

Reflective thinking can be applied to social-civic problems. The techniques of the historian, the sociologist, the economist, and the geographer offer clues to the social studies teacher. Reflective thinking in the social-civic as in other areas requires the recognition, analysis, and definition of the problem; the collection, evaluation, and organization of relevant data; and the formulation, verification, and application of conclusions. Social studies instruction should be so directed as to provide for maximum experience in these thought processes.

The place of the arts in expressing and achieving social-civic ideals should also be stressed. The use of the arts, however, should not remain entirely on the level of esthetic appreciation, but should include opportunities for creative expression in drawing, painting, writing, speaking, and the like as well.

Growth in effectiveness in social-civic relationships, as in all life activities, depends upon continuous experience. As adolescents are offered opportunities in the social studies classroom to meet their need for responsible participation in socially significant activities and to achieve social recognition, they will be aided in developing the desirable characteristics of behavior required for the maximum growth of personality, the fullest sharing of purposes and values, and the widest application of intelligence to the problems of social-civic life.

The address by Professor Quillen was followed by Carl A. Anderson, Principal of Presidio Junior High School, San Francisco, California:

We who work with junior-high-school girls and boys know that they are primarily interested in themselves as individuals at that age. The world of government and politics is remote to them. As a general rule courses in the social studies are not especially interesting to them. However, in our school these courses in government and citizenship took on a new meaning due to the fact that a number of Jewish refugee children recently enrolled in our school. To these refugee children, government had been something vital and probably terrible. The point of view and the experiences of these recent arrivals from Europe made government and citizenship seem important to our pupils. Our Constitution and the Bill of Rights became something vital and precious. The social studies became infused with new life and meaning.

Nevertheless, our girls and boys of twelve to fifteen years of age probably learn citizenship best by living and practising it. The modern junior high school is a small democracy in which individual competence is developed. The students not only learn to live together in a democratic way but they learn to solve their problems coöperatively and democratically. Not only is there greater democracy in the classroom but the students also have a chance to participate in school government through the various student organizations, councils, etc. It is this idea of group responsibility for matters of group concern which is the essence of democracy, and the schools of to-day are furnishing the opportunity for the pupils to solve many of their own problems in this way.

By combining the theoretical study of government and democracy with the actual practice of it in the schools we shall probably make progress toward the desired goal.

Our most important responsibility as educators is to "sell" the idea of democracy to the young people of to-day so that they will be filled with a zeal and fervor for it—so that they will not allow this precious heritage to slip away from them or be lost through negligence or ignorance.



GENERAL SESSION

Thursday, July 6, 1939

2:00 P. M.

Principal C. W. White of the High School of Commerce, San Francisco, California, and the General Chairman of the Summer Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, introduced Dr. Milton Chernin, Director of Research of the State Relief Administration of California, who, in the absence of Dr. H. Dewey Anderson, Director of California State Relief, read Dr. Anderson's paper on *Youth and Unemployment*.

YOUTH AND UNEMPLOYMENT

H. DEWEY ANDERSON

Director of California State Relief

In this talk you are going to hear the word "youth" many times. It is a word connoting hope, energy, and the sparkling freshness of new vitality. Yet under the economic impact of the last nine years the traditionally shining qualities of youth are becoming dulled, the word itself has come to represent a problem rather than a period of eager strength. The resiliency, the force, the zest are still present in youth, though dammed up by economic conditions. It is up to the citizens of this nation and this state to break the dams before these vital qualities are dried up and lost. As educators you will be in the forefront of this endeavor.

In California to-day, as well as in the rest of the nation, youth is a surplus commodity. We hear much about surplus oranges being dumped in rivers, about surplus eggs, milk, flour, cotton, and canned goods. The triple A, the Surplus Commodities Corporation and other governmental agencies devote millions of dollars to solving these problems.

But we don't hear so much about the young people disgorged in waves from homes and schools to plunge into a depression world that offers to many of them nothing but the old-fashioned cold shoulder. The National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps have been set up to help these young boys and girls a little in getting over the roughest spots but there is no agency that can assure them permanent jobs or even the place in life that American education has led them to expect.

Youth, that energetic and eager portion of our population, is left to burn up in its own flame. This is waste of a precious commodity, a commodity that cannot be curtailed or increased at will—a social resource of a value impossible to figure in dollars and cents. For in this army of young people is the future of our country. Their brains and hands will determine the shape of this future. What this shape is to be—whether a

newer and brighter civilization, or a back-slide into the stagnant past—depends on the fate of the youth of to-day. We can mold it as we wish.

Undoubtedly all of you representing the vast system of public education in the United States have been putting thought to the problem of what is happening to all of the youngsters who graduated from high schools and colleges this year, wondering how they are getting along in the world we have for them to-day. Perhaps you wonder how many of the high-school graduates are able to go on to college and continue their education; how many of them are finding jobs; or perhaps how many are trudging from door to door, leaving applications to be put "on file."

In California for the past few months the State Relief Administration and the State Department of Education have been making a study to find out just what the picture is to-day, and what the future holds for these young people who must carry on the burden of our commonwealth.

We realize that our efforts at this time cannot solve the youth problem, cannot deal exhaustively with the vital questions of a group so large, so widely distributed, and so heterogeneous. But we do feel that the practical study we are making may be of great assistance in the movement to help youth, that it may be the thin end of a wedge in bringing about some improvement in conditions. The youth survey we are making is not based on theories or ivory tower contemplation. We are endeavoring to arrive at a sound and concrete estimate of the situation, based on actual conditions, and gathered through thousands of personal interviews and questionnaires to business men, community leaders, school officials, leaders of organized labor, and young people themselves. We don't think this common sense research is destined for remote library shelves, but for practical use in attempting some solution to the problems of youth.

The California Youth Survey was originally conceived by Dr. Walter Dexter, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Dr. Aubry A. Douglass, Chief of the Division of Secondary Education, and Dr. H. Dewey Anderson, State Relief Administrator. The survey is being carried on jointly by the State Department of Education, Division of Adult and Continuation Education, under the direction of Dr. George C. Mann, and by the State Relief Administration, Division of Planning and Research.

The survey is divided into two parts, although the final report will be an integrated one, for which both departments will be responsible. Since it was felt that a study and evaluation of the educational facilities available to California youth and the extent to which they utilize these facilities formed in itself a major part of any such study it was agreed that this phase should be carried on under the direct supervision of the Department of Education.

The Department of Education has secured the coöperation of a large number of school departments throughout the state in carrying on a series

of questionnaire studies, including a follow-up study of graduates of high schools and colleges and a study of the activities of high schools, junior colleges, colleges, and special schools in California, in the fields of guidance, placement and vocational training.

The State Relief Administration has undertaken the task of gathering together all available data on the problem of youth and of intensively studying the problem of youth and unemployment. A greater portion of this study deals with the two major factors with which youth must reckon in its search for employment; mainly, employers and labor organizations. A carefully designed questionnaire has been sent to approximately eight thousand employers in the State and to fifteen hundred labor unions.

In the field of education representative high-school districts are chosen for distribution of the questionnaires, districts that form a complete cross section of the make-up of youth. The main divisions are metropolitan or big city regions; districts made up of small cities and suburban towns; farm and agricultural regions; and areas where two or more of these elements are combined. In this way typical sections of California youth are reached.

In order to insure thorough coverage and complete cross-section treatment questionnaires were distributed to fifth grade pupils in many districts to take home to elder brothers and sisters who fall within the fifteen to twenty-four age classification. In other cases hundreds of questionnaires were sent to night-school groups, although with the realization that this section represented perhaps a smaller percentage of youth, not entirely typical of the youth group as a whole.

The questionnaires are mailed out with enclosed envelopes for replies. Response has been very good, particularly from educational institutions. The high percentage of answers from individual young people showed the active interest they are taking in their own predicament.

These questionnaire sheets contain whole series of questions relating to youth problems, but in the main are directed toward finding the relationship between education and work experience. Specific questions are on the special education in commercial and vocational fields, the experiences of youth in seeking employment, and the incomes they receive if employment has been found.

First of all we need to specify just who are these youth, what kind of people the term includes. They are young boys and girls aged fifteen to twenty-four, preparing themselves to take part in life or already trying to take part. This group forms one-sixth of California population—one out of six persons is one of these boys or girls I am talking about. This means that on an average every time you walk along the sidewalk and pass six people, one of them is a member of this group. Perhaps his face doesn't show the problems he is facing, but they are there, nonetheless. Maybe

the next one you see on the street was lucky enough to get a job, or to go to college, but he is probably the exception.

One-sixth of the population means there are 1,110,000 boys and girls in this state to-day between the ages of fifteen to twenty-four. No temporary measures can expunge them from the slate of our business and political world.

A large portion of these 1,110,000 young men and women live in the big cities of California—forty-three per cent altogether. Twenty-one per cent live in smaller cities. The rest, a significantly large section of thirty-six per cent, over one-third, live in small towns and rural sections of the state. They all have the common problems of trying to get educations and jobs, but the circumstances may be somewhat different between rural areas and big cities.

An overwhelming majority of the youth group is made up of American citizens. Four-fifths of the number are native born white, and most of the members of the negro and other races, a little over twelve per cent of the total, were born in this country. A large number of these people have already attained the voting age; over one hundred thousand are reaching it every year. These general figures are for the state of California. Just about the same ratios hold good for the rest of the nation, so that California is not alone in its youth problem. I am concentrating this talk on the situation in California, as I said, because our studies are being carried on here. But all of you here are interested in the problem as it affects you, and these remarks, I believe, have a broad and general application to the whole country.

I can sum up the main problem of youth in a few simple words; they can't get decent jobs. By decent jobs I mean work that pays enough for American standards of living, work with some hope of future advancement, and some small measure of security. This kind of work is extremely hard to find for the average young person.

Others have summed up the problem in more detail. The National Youth Administration said:

"The development of employment opportunities for youth and the development of employability on the part of youth are recognized . . . as the most vital part of any program enabling young people to assume the responsibilities of adult citizenship."

"The feeling of insecurity which has oppressed us for the past nine years has pressed most heavily upon the youth so that to-day we have "lost generations," young men and women who have had the misfortune to come out of school during depression years to go into months and years of joblessness and who now have less chance for employment than later waves who have come out of school in the past year or two. The older generations of workers are hanging on to their jobs. Youth is being ex-

ploited, played off against age, induced to start at the bottom, and the bottom has lowered alarmingly since 1920."

One of the major aspects of the youth problem in this state is the difficulty young people find in availing themselves of existing means of education. High schools, it would seem, concentrate on preparing people for universities, and the average young person cannot afford to go to college. Less than twenty per cent of those entering high school ever enter colleges in California. The great majority are faced with the necessity of finding work as soon as their high-school training is completed—sometimes even before this. As you so well know, high schools in general do not train their students for specialized vocations and skilled types of work. The young people graduate and set out in the world with some knowledge of algebra, geometry, Shakespeare, history, general science, and perhaps a rather thorough knowledge of football.

They join a waiting array of others with just about the same qualifications. As one businessman phrased it, "Why, they are a dime a dozen around here, Why should I pick only high-school graduates for any of my jobs when I can get all the college men I want at my own terms."

The gap between leaving school and finding work is the difficult period, the no-mans-land, the time of discouragement and bitter disappointment. Pounding the pavement day after day, or hitch-hiking around the country only to meet with slammed doors and curt "Nothing doings" doesn't do much to raise the morale of young people. It is in this period of enforced idleness that serious problems of maladjustment and delinquency take root. Of new inmates entering San Quentin Prison in California in 1937-1938, nearly one-third were under twenty-five. The expense of caring for young people after they have become delinquents and criminals is a costly item to the taxpayers of the state. These are of course the extreme cases.

The majority of young boys and girls won't become criminals or delinquents but they may often develop an apathy, a "don't give a hoot" feeling that can cost the community far more than hold-ups and robbery, both in dollars and cents and in the intangible costs to general welfare.

Young people in rural communities and on the farms are just as hard hit; sometimes much harder. One likes to picture them as being able to lend a helping hand around the farm, getting up at dawn to plow the fragrant earth, carrying pails of frothy milk, then sitting down to substantial meals of ham and eggs, hot cakes, potatoes, roasts, and two kinds of pie. These were the good old days. The situation of the small farmer to-day is rapidly changing. He is running a nip-and-tuck race between the mortgage on one hand and the relief rolls on the other. When he takes his crops to the open market and finds the offered price less than his

growing costs, he has no way of taking care of a couple of lusty sons and daughters. They must get out and rustle for themselves.

They too join the growing army of wandering youth. Often they head for the cities where there are factories, offices, industries, in hopes of work there. Once in the cities they find the problem just as bad as in the country. They find that employers have few openings to fill and that they pick the cream of the crop, the exceptional among the youth.

Research into the youth problem, backed by the opinions of a large body of practical economists, presents the inevitable conclusions that this is not a temporary situation, that it will not solve itself as time rolls on. Under an economy no longer expanding there is now and undoubtedly will continue to be a permanent reservoir of surplus labor—a more or less constant percentage of which will be youth.

We can agree that there is nothing wrong with the American democratic system. Under its framework permanent solutions are possible, and will surely come about. In the meantime immediate action on the youth problem will have two objectives: immediate moral and physical assistance for these youths who are in the least favorable positions environmentally and economically, and long term planning in which the youth problem is approached as a whole. Thorough study is necessary on the part of public leaders in general and educators in particular. In any approach to the youth problem the educational system necessarily plays a leading role.

People generally are sympathetic toward youth. Everyone was young once himself and a great many have children in the age group I am talking about. The individual would like to do something about the youth problem if he knew what to do, and the parent particularly holds high hopes for the future of his son or daughter in high school. Parents, teachers, businessmen, politicians, are all concerned to a greater or lesser degree. Most of them, however, see the situation from their own point of view. You are closest in touch with the youth problem and a major responsibility in this field lies with you. Parents and the public must look to you for leadership.

In carrying on our research into the youth problem we have talked to a great many business leaders. Nearly all showed a great deal of sympathy but didn't see much they could do about it as single individuals. Some of them recognized the need for aid to youth and a long term plan.

One man, the general manager of a large wholesale mercantile firm, said, "I certainly feel that youngsters should have help from the state when they need it. Suppose you had a kid, and he tried and tried and couldn't get a job. Wouldn't you support him until he could take care of himself, and give him all the help and encouragement you could? They need guidance, especially when they're up against it. If we tried to run our business with as little knowledge of what the demand for our products is

as the employment offices do, we'd have been broke a long time ago. We know just what the demand is, and we figure it out ahead so that we can meet it. Isn't it even more important to do this in the employment field, when you're dealing with human beings, instead of with profits?"

Certainly a convincing argument, but a glance at the facts of employment will show how little our youth of to-day is being helped.

The nation-wide check of unemployment conducted by the United States Bureau of the Census in 1937 showed that approximately one-quarter of the unemployed of California are young people. One hundred and ten thousand people who had already left school, who wanted to work, were unable to find work of any kind. This does not take into account the thousands who were working only part time or at any kind of a job they could get—ditch digging, soda jerking, gas pumping—instead of at the vocations in which they were interested. These thousands are merely marking time, doing what they can to get by until things ease up and again open up the market for eager youth. But the 110,000 who are totally unemployed must taste the bitter drugs of not being wanted. Many of them must undergo the humiliating stigma of getting on relief. Well over half of all the people on the SRA rolls in California to-day are under twenty-five. Others get WPA jobs, go to CCC camps, receive a little aid from the National Youth Administration. Countless others must sit at home, or go the weary rounds of the employment bureaus with a series of frustrating defeats every day.

In a survey in San Francisco it was found that occasionally they broke under the strain. The mother of one nineteen-year-old former high-school athlete would not talk about her son at first. Finally she broke into tears and revealed that he was in a hospital with a nervous breakdown. He had hunted for work for a year and then his finely tuned set of nerves went to pieces under the strain.

In spite of its advantages of freshness and enthusiasm youth faces a special problem in unemployment, distinct and more acute than that of the other age groups thrown out of joint by conditions. While workers in the older age groups have work experience and occupational resources to offer in the labor market, youths in many cases have never worked at all or only at unskilled or temporary jobs. It is only since widespread unemployment has created intense competition for jobs that lack of experience has become a serious handicap to new workers, who formerly were in great demand. Trade unions often cannot take them in because they already have more members than there are jobs.

The world turns a brassy front of indifference to youth, greets its eager advances with a cold stare. This sort of thing cannot go on in a country as highly civilized as the United States. Public realization of the problem will do much to solve it, for once the facts are known and under-

stood half the battle toward aid and planning is won. It is certain that youth has great need of training and guidance so that it can take its rightful place in productive society, but it is also clear that the basic necessity of providing employment for all those who desire work is a problem which must be faced as a whole.

Already various state and Federal agencies have taken as great a share of the burden as possible, but they are able to handle only a small part of the problem and even then on a temporary emergency basis. Limitations of funds are narrowing their field still more, so that instead of standing still the problem from this point of view is growing worse.

The National Youth Administration is able to accommodate on its rolls only a fraction of the youth who are eligible or who make application. At the end of March of this year, the NYA load in California consisted of 6,263 youths on work projects, who received an average of twenty dollars a month, and about five hundred youths on resident projects. During March more than twenty-two thousand high school, college, and graduate students were able to stay in school only with the aid of the NYA student program. High-school girls and boys received average monthly benefits of \$4.68, college students averaged \$12.49 a month.

Other agencies giving assistance to California youth fifteen to twenty-four years old are the Works Progress Administration with fifty-five hundred on its rolls as family heads, the State Relief Administration with an estimated fifty-two thousand youths receiving a meager dole, and the CCC with eight thousand California boys in camps.

This gives a total of about seventy thousand out-of-school youths receiving some kind of emergency aid, but the small earnings or benefits received by them on these programs cannot possibly be a substitute for private employment at standard wages. These are temporary stop-gaps. They help for the time being but do not solve the problem.

These are some of the facts which the Youth Survey has already gathered. The State Relief Administration and the State Department of Education, the two agencies which are coöperating in this study, feel that they can render a valuable service to the people of California and their government by doing that job—getting the facts. Without facts, we can't do anything. When we have them, we can place the complete picture before the public and before those state and Federal agencies which are concerned. We know that this picture will be a sufficiently vital and challenging one to point out the necessity of continuing and extending those services which are now being offered to youth, as well as bringing about changes and improvements in the direction of working out a long range program which will look toward the ultimate solution of the youth problem. We feel, on the basis of our preliminary findings, that the heart of such a program must be to find decent jobs for unemployed youth. With

a short range program, we must work in each community toward eliminating the special difficulties which young people face in adjusting to the occupational world so that they will not suffer from greater, more overwhelming handicaps that beset the rest of the population in achieving a measure of economic security.

Here in this state the governor has appointed a Commission on Re-employment to devise practical methods of solving the problems of unemployment. Their report will be turned over to the governor sometime in the near future. It will, we know, contain sound and common sense recommendations, and a special session of our state legislature will probably be called to consider the suggestions that the governor's Commission will bring in.

In your own community you who are closest to the difficulties of young people, are doing and must do a great deal to interpret their problem to your many neighbors and community leaders who, through mutual co-operation, may be able to take the first steps toward better adjustment of young people to the world of to-day.

The Chairman, following Dr. Anderson's paper, introduced Arthur Gould, Deputy Superintendent of Schools of Los Angeles, who spoke as follows:

ARTHUR GOULD: In view of the fact that no other agencies have found it possible to do much for the great groups of unemployed youth, the responsibility for doing something in the situation evidently falls back upon the schools. It is possible that by the term schools we may not mean an expansion of the types of schools now in existence but rather new types of schools or a wider adoption of types of schools that now exist in only a few places. It is a fact, however, that beginning with the year 1933-34 colleges and universities have shown a rather large and consistent growth in enrollment. The total enrollment for all colleges and universities of all sorts during the year 1933-34 was 712,349. That total steadily increased so that the year 1937-38 showed a total enrollment of 870,356, which is an increase of twenty-two per cent for the five-year period. The institutions classified as universities have shown an important growth during the same five-year period. They have grown from a low in 1933-34 of 469,720, to a high in 1937-38 of 547,542, an increase of almost seventeen per cent. From this last fact it is evident that young people are seeking those institutions which have opportunities for training for specific vocations.

The experience of the liberal arts colleges has been even more outstanding, with enrollments increasing in the same five-year period from 129,863 to 172,406—an increase of almost thirty-three per cent. Other collegiate institutions such as teachers colleges, junior colleges, and profes-

sional and technical schools have had almost similar experiences during the same period. It would seem, therefore, that even though youth cannot find employment they are preparing themselves very definitely for the business of living.

It is probable that important growth in institutions that can care for young people of college age will take place in schools of the sort now called junior colleges, and trade schools. Schools of this type could easily be built in much larger numbers if the units of administration in state school systems could be very much enlarged or if it were possible for school districts as we now know them to combine for the purpose of building trade schools and junior colleges. This has been done in some states such as New Jersey and Wisconsin. There is no serious obstacle to the development and expansion of this program in other states, provided there is enough earnest attention given to it by those who are charged with the responsibility for the educational program in each of those states.

CHARLES J. LAMP (Principal of Evening High School of Commerce): A prominent educator recently stated as a corrective to the complaints of the youth of to-day, that our young people to-day expect too much. In his early days things were different. He mentioned his receiving only \$720.00 for his first year of service as a school teacher. Undoubtedly this was forty or fifty years ago. My initial salary upon entering the San Francisco high schools as a teacher in 1915 was \$1,500 a year. It is true that the present salary schedule is 33 1/3 per cent higher; i. e., \$2,000 a year, but this advanced salary has not the purchasing power equal to that of what I started with. The relative costs of such basic necessities as food and clothing have advanced more than one-third. For example, in 1915 I bought many a leg of lamb for sixty or sixty-five cents. The standard price at that time for the highest grade Walk-over or Regal shoes was \$3.50. By comparison with present-day costs of these and numerous other articles, it is obvious that from the standpoint of purchasing power the youth of to-day is receiving less than he did twenty-five years ago.

I do not believe, furthermore, that the trade school should be exploited. In this connection I might mention my serving in an official capacity with a local organization largely concerned with fostering the education and welfare of our youth. At a recent meeting of this organization, data were presented showing that from ten thousand to twenty thousand San Francisco boys between the ages of fifteen to twenty-five are out of employment. As a means of remedying this situation, all local unions were acquainted with these facts and asked to open up their apprenticeship lists. As an example of the lack of opportunity for finding employment for apprentices, the following reply from one of the unions is typical of the whole situation: Union membership, 756. Apprentices now on its list, seventy-five. As steady employment for only forty of the seventy-five ap-

prentices is now available, the union felt it would be guilty of misrepresentation to admit more apprentices, as it could find employment for about half of its apprenticeship list. They feel that the admission of more apprentices would be misleading the youth into believing that employment was in store, where factual data show that such is not the case.

This prominent educator suggested that a "back-to-the-farm" movement be inaugurated. I may be pardoned for presenting some experiences with which I have become personally acquainted in the last several years by reason of falling part-heir to a ranch in one of the most desirable parts of our state. A concrete highway runs past the land, which affords ideal transportation facilities to Napa, the county seat, three miles south, and to San Francisco or Oakland, the two largest cities in the northern part of the state, not more than fifty-four miles distant. Plenty of water is cheaply procurable as the Napa River forms the rear boundary of the ranch. The land is highest grade river bottom soil easily workable as it is practically level. With all of these natural advantages for both growing and transporting crops produced, it has not produced sufficient returns to cover labor costs at from thirty to thirty-five cents an hour, plus taxes and interest on the investment during the past seven years. The decrease of net returns from the land has occasioned a decrease in its estimated value. In an effort to "get out from under" the property was listed for sale. The many advantages of this property have prompted several offers but none of them exceed more than twenty-five per cent of an offer made in 1925 for the same property. The problem of interesting young folks to return to the farm lies in the realm of economic readjustment rather than the field of education. There are thousands of youth who will return to the farm just as soon as farm labor pays a fair return for the investment.

Since the preceding statements are negative, one might ponder as to what the educator can do in a positive way to help in the employment of youth. In conclusion, I suggest that it is my belief that the educator's province in the problems of youth employment lie in ferreting out new occupations that develop through modern invention or modern improvement in business or professional procedures. As an example of the latter I might mention the recently created course for medical assistants, et al., now being offered at the school of which I am principal.

G. M. Hoyt (Director of Attendance and Employment, Los Angeles City Schools): I believe in *selling*. Perhaps America can be sold out of its economic woes. Has it ever occurred to you that the public school is the only large manufacturing organization without a sales department? In Los Angeles we have at least the beginning of a sales staff, that is, a junior placement service which, by the way, is affiliated with the California State Employment Service. Our seventeen years of experience with junior place-

ment has convinced us that competent young workers can be sold to employers if we utilize the basic principles of salesmanship.

When these young people prove their worth they add to the sum total of goods and services, become consumers, expand the market a bit, and thereby help to create work for others. Many times an employer asks for a young man or woman for a temporary job. A superior applicant is sent and very frequently we receive a report on the follow-up something like this: "John _____ is doing so well we decided to keep him, although we had only a temporary job when he came to us. We will accept another young man if you can send us one as good as he."

Selling surplus youth one by one appears to be a hopelessly slow process. It would be more spectacular to march them from the school-house to the doors of the work-a-day world not single spies but in battalions. Yet the prospect of a sudden demand for young workers is so poor, it seems to me, we may as well try to insinuate them one by one into the economic structure. The schools must accept the responsibility for this task in conjunction with the state employment offices everywhere.

H. D. GWINN (Principal, Big Pine Unified Schools, Big Pine, California): I do not believe that we, as a professional group, will get anywhere if we continue to assume that youth unemployment is a separate problem unrelated to other national issues and that it can only be solved if and when secondary administrators are willing to accept their responsibility in providing the ideal curriculum which is supposed to be the final answer to the puzzle of youth finding employment.

Dr. Judd, in discussing Aubrey Williams' address, gave the impression that the secondary-school curriculum was responsible; that we, as administrators, would have to revise or accept the consequences if we did not, whatever those consequences might be so far as youth and employment are concerned.

To show the relationship of youth unemployment to other important factors or problems, let us take the following hypothetical case which is a typical example of what youth faces to-day in most communities.

John, an unemployed youth, applies to employer Smith for employment. Smith tells John that they are not employing any additional help at the time but to leave his name and address and return later, for if they need him, Smith will notify him. If John asks Smith why he cannot obtain work, Smith will probably tell him that he cannot expand his activities to provide more work until he receives assurance that he will not be hampered with additional government restrictions or taxes; or perhaps Smith's plant is having difficulty with one or both labor organizations fighting for the right to represent the employees of his plant. At any rate, John does not find employment.

Perhaps John may be rather young or may not possess the necessary union qualifications for a position, if there should be one, at that particular plant. If John wishes to qualify with the union, he may be told that their lists are full and that they are not admitting any more apprentices; or perhaps the union prefers to see that married men with families among their ranks receive first consideration for employment. For the time being, John may be able to secure odd jobs at low wages, or depend upon the NYA aid, if possible, return to school, or join the CCC. However, these are only stop-gaps. They cannot furnish him with an income sufficient to support a family, so John either marks time in school, getting occasional odd jobs or he bums around the country looking for work or, becoming discouraged in seeking employment he loses interest and finds his career on the relief rolls.

The NYA, according to Aubrey Williams, has gone about as far as it can toward solving the problem of youth unemployment and now it suspects that lack of coöperation on the part of the secondary schools may be responsible for bringing its efforts to a halt. That, however, is not the final answer. Neither the NYA nor a dozen revised secondary curriculums will solve the problem of unemployment without the active coöperation of other interests. To create employment means we must have capital to expand business and industry. Neither the NYA nor the secondary schools of America, have the capital to go into business and provide jobs for youth who wish to leave school and seek employment. Therefore, the only thing we can do is attack the problem from another angle.

Since we find that youth unemployment is related to the whole national problem of unemployment and that increased employment depends upon a greater circulation of capital to provide increased expansion of business and industry, and the will for business and industry to go ahead depends upon amicable relations with our national government and labor organizations, so we as a professional group, therefore, should be giving serious consideration to the whole situation.

If we could bring the necessary pressure to bear upon our responsible leaders of business, government, labor, and education and make them realize the vital need for the closest coöperation at present, we will have taken a long stride toward the ultimate solution; a solution which will never be perfect in the strict sense of the word, but one that would be far superior to our present situation.

Up to now, one group has blamed the other. One group refuses to act because it may fear what its opponents may do. Business and industry refuse to invest capital to expand their activities, because they fear retaliatory actions from the government. Labor expects the government to see that capital does not unduly exploit it. Industry and labor become dead-

locked over their problems, and labor itself, divided into two great camps fighting for supremacy, adds to the general confusion.

What can we do? Perhaps a hint can be gleaned from an article by Walter Lippman on "America's Future," which appeared in a recent issue of *Life*. In this article Mr. Lippman reviews America's problems and fears. He presents the picture of America, a country with splendid resources, population and capital, hesitating at the crossroads, reluctant as yet, to accept her full responsibilities as a nation and as a world power.

We need intestinal fortitude to banish our fears, real and imaginary, and accept our responsibilities. How can we expect youth to accept responsibilities when adults refuse them? We are not going to improve the situation by pulling in different directions. Instead of mutual fear and misunderstanding of one another, the leaders of industry, government, labor, and education should be meeting in a body to compromise unselfishly on the important issues of the day relative to the unemployment problem. Such action, while not producing a perfect solution, would nevertheless pave the way for mutual understanding and the much-needed coöperative action.

C. E. GRADY (Classen High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma): Dr. Anderson's paper may be a little pessimistic, but my experience leads me to say that the paper gives a true statement of condition. Many side issues have crept into this discussion. Modern youth demands too much we are told. To prove this statement the speaker cites his own experience as a beginning teacher. I began teaching in 1901 at a yearly salary of \$360.00. These citations mean nothing for we are living in a different age.

We are also told that there is no farm unemployment problem. I cannot agree with this statement. I was reared in the hills of Western Kentucky. I came to California over highway 66. From the time we left Oklahoma until we arrived in California, we did not see enough fertile soil left to support the population in the rural districts. If all were employed the purchasing power of these poor farmers would not be sufficient to support them. It is a pitiful condition. These people will sooner or later migrate to the fertile valleys of California. Since I left my home state for Oklahoma I have kept in close contact with conditions in my home county. Except in the narrow valleys or the creeks and rivers this land will not support the population. It cannot make a decent living. Years ago we boasted of a balanced budget. We were mistaken; we were only selling the top soil, and mistook the sale for a profit. Now these people are without profitable employment. They have no purchasing power. The same problem confronts the man without employment. My travels over Ohio, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Missouri, and Arkansas convince me that the farm labor problem is serious. The farmer may work, but the

soil is worn out and the farmer cannot have an adequate purchasing power. Dr. Anderson has not overestimated the troubles on the farm.

I cannot see a solution to our problem by building junior colleges. Many of our schools are trying this plan but we must not forget that the community can hardly support a school system of only twelve grades. It is folly in many districts to think of two extra grades. Our buildings are crowded now and salaries low. Frequently junior colleges mean lower salaries. We must look elsewhere for the solution of the problem.

Neither can we say to business we will adopt the policy of hands off and let the manager have a free hand without heavy taxes. That means that we will reinvite our old trouble. Business in the twenties brought us where we are. No, we must not return to our old policies, but we must find new and untried ways of solving a knotty problem. My own feeling is that we will never solve the unemployment problem until we sit down around a common table—Democrats, Republicans, and all talk over our problem. All known remedies have been tried, something new must be undertaken. Yes, Dr. Anderson's paper is a true statement of conditions as they exist to-day.

CARRIE E. GILLESPIE (Real Estate Broker, Berkeley, California): The startling facts concerning unemployment as tabulated by the California Relief Administrator are entitled to serious consideration, rather than the mere gesture of attention accorded. Thoughtful, intelligent auditors marveled that so little realization of youth's problems from the viewpoint of unemployment penetrated the nebulous dreams of a group inhabiting a cellophane existence, indulging in "old wives' tales," the good old days now gone forever.

Themselves, secure in positions of honor and trust, supplied with generous provision for present needs, and reasonable retirement protection; certainly a jar is needed, a jolt is due, to arouse educators to a more practical leadership. Crime cost America fifteen billion dollars last year—almost one-third our national income. The majority of criminals are youthful.

Idleness is the devil's workshop; there are not enough jobs. Unfair, unjust criticism is begging the question—Mr. Gould's summary, "Young, inefficient service station attendants make me wait for gas; inattentive clerks, immersed in their own affairs, or matters not connected with my wants, cause me to waste my time. Youth to-day expects to start at the salary it took me six years to attain." There are no jobs, not enough to go around. Men and women stand in line, able, willing, anxious to work, accepting charity rather than starve. Dewey Anderson's survey gives the figures in California in 1939. United States Senator Sheridan Downey, campaigning, said, "The keen brain of man conceived machines to destroy drudgery, once men with manual labor earned a pittance, there was work waiting, we have arrived at the machine age—even simple household

tasks are standardized, mechanized. A few short years ago women and girls prepared food for home consumption; now with time-saving electrical appliances they were even able to earn pin money, and some supported themselves working in canneries; recently in a modern cannery in Sacramento, California, one machine was installed which cans one hundred sixty thousand cans of peaches an hour. Hand labor cannot compete with machines. In every line of industry we see improved machinery speeding up, cutting the cost. Not only in rural districts, but also in the great centers of population employment must be provided for those able to work, and subsistence must be furnished our people."

Human greed and selfishness is the crime of this generation. Unequal distribution of wealth is a crime against humanity.

Men came to America seeking God, liberty, homes. Each coin proclaims our faith. Courts of justice exalt Him. Stars and stripes wave free o'er land and sea. America for a favored few? No. The old Tories who fought the colonists thought so. Lincoln said, "God loves the common people, else He would not have made so many of them." A government of the people, for the people, by the people means all the people. With proper leadership the majority rules. Our stored power-money is controlled by crooks and cowards.

Big business is afraid to put the money to work—idle money makes idle men. Meddling in European affairs we lost a generation.

Conservatives, who cannot change, are bewildered. It takes young men who have never been licked to lead the way out.

Temporarily we are in the hands of the money changers. Traitors—selfish, greedy, vicious, flood God's America with homeless, heartsick families; in rich America where there is plenty for all.

When Foch and Haig wanted Pershing to merge the Expeditionary Forces with their divisions, he said, "We fight as a unit." They urged: "American troops are young, inexperienced, know nothing of trench fighting; we need them to fill holes in our division." Our chosen leader—he used to be a country school teacher—told the French and English, "'Tis true my boys never fought in trenches; they won't hide there four years nor four days. Put us in the forefront of the battle; we have never been licked." Argonne told the tale and turned the tide.

A remnant of some divisions in that conflict came home to San Francisco. I saw them at the Ferry and along Market Street for a planned parade, that broke into a mob of tumultuous, joyous welcome. I watched the worn, tired faces, carved by suffering, recording hardship, sacrifice of youth, joy, health.

Can we forgive Big Business and those they bought for robbing such men? I think not.

It's 1939, with 11,000,000 unemployed. To first voters we pass the problem of choosing leaders who can plan wisely and show America the way to plenty and prosperity. Trained in schoolroom, drilled on the playground, unafraid, shoulder to shoulder, youth is moving forward, facing problems that bewilder the aged, who have earned a rest, are afraid of insecurity, and are tired. California youth may lead the way. San Francisco knows how.

FRANK J. COVELL (Roosevelt Junior High School, San Jose, California): In the analysis of the problem of youth unemployment we come upon the two great tasks facing education to-day. Firstly, education must prepare its youth to assume and maintain successfully a place in a society that is more complex, exacting, and defiant than ever before in history—a society that demands an individual with more and better training to fill positions that cannot be filled without the proper preparation. Secondly, education must prepare minds capable of dealing with the more complex problems of our society. The meteoric rise of technical knowledge has suddenly made possible an abundance of economic goods. For centuries man has battled with the problem of a production sufficient for all, and now that this dream has been realized, we find that it may lead to disaster, for we are not prepared to do the advanced thinking that these new problems demand.

This problem of youth unemployment is imbedded in the heart of our social structure. Its solution will not be found by a mere scratching of the surface. Youth must be better prepared, and all of youth should have an equal opportunity to get this training.

Our complex society demands that its individuals be of a higher quality. They must produce more efficiently in shorter periods, and then must show resourcefulness in the use of their leisure time. This individual must be the product of better training—of better education. He is not born with any of this training, and when we do not make the opportunity for preparation available to all of our youth, we are handicapping them at the very start of their fight with a most difficult modern world.

Our Federal Government must continue and must enhance its good work in education. It must make funds available for that specific purpose in those localities where funds are lacking. It must bolster education in the great task of preparing the children of America for this fast, furious, and competitive life, and if we don't see to it that these children who lack this opportunity for preparation are helped, we will be shirking our duty to our democracy, to our forefathers, and to our civilization. Our forefathers fought that men might have equal opportunity, our democracy was created on the maximum of equality for all. Now our civilization stands ready to offer us the fruits of the experiences and talents of centuries, if

only we will rise to the occasion and plan our society in a way that will make it possible for all of us to enjoy those fruits.

Insecurity in the midst of plenty is an insult to our intellect. We have achieved what has been striven for since the beginning of time—a production sufficient for all, and now that this millennium has been reached, we sit aghast at its result, and refusing to think logically and constructively on how to manage it, we revert to childish, skin-deep solutions, when it deserves and demands some real thinking.

We need a greater national income. The increase that has come and will continue to come in the activities of the Federal government make a larger income both essential and inevitable. Therein may very well lie the solution for the improvement of our society. Our present task is to devise the best means to increase that income.

Just as technology has advanced by leaps and bounds since the advent of the collaboration of thinking and research on problems of machinery; so must we have a collaboration of the thinking of experts on political government if it is to keep abreast of our times.

The simple fact that our age makes available to us more worldly pleasures than were ever before enjoyed by man is no justification for our sitting back and imagining that things will always be thus. A society never remains static. It either progresses or degenerates. It is plebeian to live on the laurels of the efforts of our forefathers. We must carry civilization onward or fall back into inevitable degeneracy.

Education must face the task of saving our civilization. It must give our youth an equality of opportunity to train itself for the more demanding tasks of to-day. It must prepare critical and forward-looking leaders who can shape our society to fit our changing needs, and these leaders must bear the spirit of democracy uppermost in mind, for we can well afford to forego a few material luxuries for the happiness, the freedom, the sense of equality that are the real values of a democratic society.

The task, then, is to mold our democracy so that it will give us security as well as liberty, and it is toward that goal that education must set its sails.

ANGA M. BJORNSEN (Radio Chairman, Democratic Women's Division for Northern California, Piedmont, California): I was interested in the remarks of the gentleman from Kentucky, who humorously described himself as a hillbilly, who pointed out, after a previous speaker had urged the building of more junior colleges, that if more junior colleges were built in his section of the country, where economic conditions were so deplorable that people were unable to pay the taxes to support these schools, and also that the teachers in his locality would have to have their salaries reduced in order to build those junior colleges.

I am also stimulated to reply to Superintendent Gould of Los Angeles, who fell back upon the old Chamber of Commerce idea that the trouble with young people to-day was that they were not satisfied with small salaries; that they expected too much and then he went back to the good old days when he had married on \$1,200 a year and that he got along very nicely on \$1,200. We allowed that he did not stay with his \$1,200 a year job, but he is now one of the highest paid assistant superintendents in the United States.

May I point out that right here in California we teachers are building the school buildings for the average city in this state; that practically the whole building program, except where the earthquake in Los Angeles and Long Beach demolished millions of dollars worth of poorly built schools, teachers' salaries were reduced in order to build buildings everywhere, and many of our cities where a salary schedule existed before 1929, those salaries have been reduced and are "frozen" to make it possible for the cities to build schools. We have adequate proof in many of our cities that this condition exists.

In answer to the statement of Mr. Gould, I may say when I requested Dr. Chernin, who read Dr. Anderson's paper, to clarify the situation regarding opportunities to get work in California, I prefaced my remarks by asking Dr. Chernin if it were not true that our difficulty to-day lies in the fact that the investment field had closed in such industries as cotton, wool, shoes, and other major businesses? And it is true that the openings for youth cannot come until the field is open in building and rural electrification? To-day we are in need of ten million new homes. Seventy-five per cent or more of our farm homes are in need of repair and that the same amount are lacking in running water and bathroom and toilet facilities. Is it not true, therefore, that if such a building program were opened by low-interest lending by the government, then we could produce employment for all of our idle population for the next twenty-five years?

Adjournment.

PART II

A STUDY OF THE ADJUSTMENT OF SECONDARY YOUTH TO POST-SCHOOL OCCUPATIONAL LIFE

Implementation Committee, National Association
of Secondary-School Principals

As reported in the Bulletin of May (1939), the preliminary work of the Implementation Committee showed that a *major and pressing concern of members of the Association is that body of pupils who, faced with the typical high-school program, are neither successful nor happy and hence often become school failures, discipline problems, hindrances to learning by other youth, and ultimately withdrawals from school.* Assuming with the Orientation Committee that the program of American secondary schools should include offerings appropriate to all youth, the Implementation Committee has embarked upon a comprehensive study of the general problems of the non-adjustment of the school to the needs of all youth.

Previous work in this area has shown that there are two centers of stress responsible for this non-adjustment: one within and one without the school. Improvement in the situation within the school is largely a matter of educational offerings and methods appropriate to the needs of all youth. The committee's proposed handbook on *Providing for Educationally Neglected Youth in Our Secondary Schools* marks an initial attack by the committee upon this school problem. It expects to continue at work in this area. Release from the tension outside of the school is largely a matter of adjusting the weight of socio-economic pressure upon youth, a matter upon which the school can have but little immediate effect. Since this is true and since a more appropriate curriculum-situation cannot be achieved upon short order, the Implementation Committee holds that a large number of youth will continue to leave school to go into occupational situations to which, according to the reports of the Youth Commission and the Regents Inquiry, they are often as poorly adjusted as they were to the school situation. It therefore seemed in point to propose an inquiry into the effectiveness of what some secondary schools are doing to increase the probability that their youth, when leaving school, are better able to secure and hold employment than they otherwise would have been.*

Accordingly, such a study was proposed to the General Education Board with the purpose of obtaining a grant for aid in carrying it out, and a subvention of \$25,000 was secured.

*The committee recognizes that there are other important adjustments to be made by these youth and that they are also often poorly made. It selects the area of occupational adjustment for initial work largely because there is a probability that indices of adjustment or mal-adjustment are here more concrete and objective than in some other areas. In the meanwhile the committee is studying the possibilities of launching other inquiries into the adjustment of these youth to post-school social and recreational life and to civic and home responsibilities. It also has in mind other studies concerned with improving the in-school adjustment of youth through improved curricular and guidance programs.

More specifically, the proposal was to study the adjustment of school-leaving youth in particular communities to the occupational opportunities open to these youth, and to study the nature of the school experiences of these youth to see whether this adjustment tends to be associated with particular types of school experience. We proposed to seek leads as to whether and how secondary schools might help to facilitate adjustment to the occupational life of the community and to develop evaluating instruments of service to school faculties who may want to study the adjustment between their school-leaving youth and the occupational life of their respective communities.

The scope of the investigation proposed will be broad enough to include youth who leave school both before and at graduation from schools which represent a wide variety of curriculum organizations and varying degrees of emphasis upon guidance and placement. It was also decided that the communities would represent a wide range in the number and type of occupational opportunities available to these youth. The necessity for making this a study of the secondary schools of a community rather than of a certain school in the community was specifically recognized. The importance of the degree of adjustment obtained during the first two or three years immediately following the period of school attendance was considered also in defining the scope of this study.

The following organization has been set up to conduct the study. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals is the sponsoring body. It will work through its Committee on Implementation, which will have general oversight and administrative responsibility through an executive committee¹ of its membership. This committee has appointed a director² for the study who is responsible for the planning and conduct of it. The Implementation Committee and the Director will appoint a small group of consultants³ whose individual and collective advice and counsel will be available during the study. This group, in so far as possible, will represent the fields of general guidance, vocational guidance, occupational placement, and secondary education. There will be a full-time central staff appointed by the director.

¹The executive committee consists of Mr. DeWitt S. Morgan, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis; Mr. Francis T. Spaulding, Professor of Education, Harvard University; Mr. Howard Dare White, Assistant Commissioner of Education, New Jersey; and Mr. Will French, Professor of Education, Columbia University, Chairman.

²Mr. Edward Landy, Principal of the Abington High School, Abington, Massachusetts, is on a year's leave of absence as Director of the Study. His major field of graduate study has been in vocational guidance at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. He has studied, also, in the field of secondary education there. He started work as Director on July 1, 1939.

³So far, the consultants are Mr. Edwin A. Lee, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia; Mr. Harry A. Jager, Chief, Occupational Information and Counseling Service, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; Mr. C. L. Shartle, Chief, Worker Analysis Section, U. S. Employment Service, Washington, D. C.; Mr. William F. Rasche, Principal, Milwaukee Vocational School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Mr. Richard D. Allen, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Providence, R. I.; Mr. Ralph W. Tyler, Chairman, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

As far as can be determined at present, the prosecution of the study will involve the following major steps:

July 1, 1939—January 1, 1940.

1. The development of evaluative criteria for judging the degree of occupational adjustment of a given youth.
2. The selection of schools to participate in a preliminary study. These should be carefully studied and a selection made which would give the study the needed scope as mentioned above. The schools should not only agree to permit the study to be made, but should agree to participate with the intention of undertaking to make such modifications and extensions of their programs as they consider desirable in the light of the study.
3. The discovery through a follow-up study of distinct groups of well-adjusted and poorly adjusted youth based upon the use of the criteria.
4. Other analyses of the data that seem worth while.

5. About January fifteenth hold a conference between representatives of the General Education Board and of the Implementation Committee to discuss the project on the basis of the experience to date. February, 1940, to May, 1940.

6. Director and assistants study and select full complement of schools to participate, if results to date warrant.
7. Director complete preliminary work with tryout schools as far as possible.
 - a. Assemble and interpret data for benefit of participating schools in preliminary tryout experiment.
 - b. Director prepare report on tryout findings for the Implementation Committee and for the General Education Board.
8. About April fifteenth there is to be held a conference of the executive committee of the Implementation Committee and representatives of the General Education Board, at which time, on the basis of results of experience with the tryout schools, decisions will be reached as to the conduct of the work through the remainder of the first year, and the necessity and desirability of extending the work beyond the first year to the full complement of schools. It is anticipated that this conference may result either in plans being laid to conclude the work within the year or to extend it beyond the year, should the probable results merit such action, depending largely upon whether the Study promises to supply methods and techniques which have general applicability and usefulness to secondary schools. If results warrant or require, work will begin on the full complement of schools selected and/or

the techniques and practices will be tried out on an experimental-control basis to further validate the findings with respect to the techniques and practices discovered as being worth while.

Plans are being made, also, so that members of the association may be informed fully of progress being made through publication in the BULLETIN of the association. The extent of the publicity developed will depend in large measure upon the worthwhileness of the results. Throughout the entire proceedings, it has been recognized by the General Education Board, the Implementation Committee, and the Director that the problem is exceedingly difficult and that the outcome of this year's work may be simply a recognition of the present impracticability of going any further with the study.

It is hoped, however, that the following will be the outcomes:

1. The development of a relatively simple but valid survey plan which will be of aid to schools in deciding to what extent their pupils, who have not gone on further with formal schooling, make satisfactory occupational adjustments.
2. The discovery of techniques and practices which can be introduced to make more effective the occupational adjustment of pupils whose formal education will cease at graduation, if not before.



